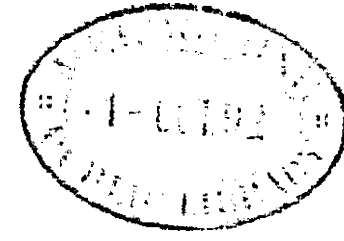


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REPORT OF THE INDIAN EDUCATION COMMISSION.

*Appointed by the Resolution of the Government of India
dated 3rd February 1882.*



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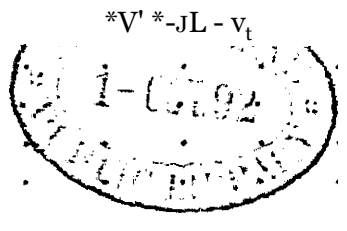
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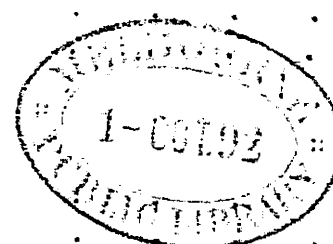
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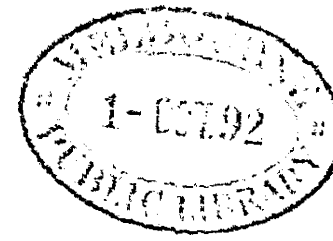
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REPORT

OF

THE EDUCATION COMMISSION

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY.

1. Appointment of the Commission—On the 3rd February 1882, the Government of India appointed an Education Commission, with a view to enquiring into the working of the existing system of Public Instruction, and to the further extension of that system on a popular basis. The Commission consisted of the twenty-one members noted below* and a secretary. A certain number of members were selected from each of the Presidencies and Provinces, excepting Burma and Assam; and care was taken, in their selection, that they should fairly represent the various races and classes interested in Indian education.

2. Reasons for the Enquiry.—The instructions to the Commission were contained in the Resolution of the Governor General in Council dated the 3rd February 1882. That document set forth the Court of Directors' Despatch of the 19th July 1854 as the basis of the educational policy of India. The Reso-

* *President* -

The Honourable W. W. HUNTEE, BA., LL.D. Member of the Viceroy's Legislative Council.

Members

The Honourable **Satsib Ahmad, Kblust Bahadur**, C.SX (who afterwards withdrew and was succeeded by his son, Ms. **Saytid Mahmid**).

The Honourable D. M. BA^{BOCB} C-S., Secretary to the Government of India in the PinanciaJ Department.

The Revd. W. E. BLACKETT, Mi., Principal of the Church Mission Divinity College, Calcutta.

Mr. *ASHHDL* Mohajv Boss, BA., Bamster-at-Xaw.

Mr. A. W. **Cboft**, M.A., Director of Public Instruction, Bengal.

Mr. K. DKIGHTON, BA., Principal of the Agra Collie, North-Western Provinces.

Mr. J. T. FOWLJ5R, Inspector of Schools, Madias.

Mr. A. P. HOWELL, M.A., C.S., Commissioner of Berar.

Mr. H. P. **Jacob**, Educational Inspector, Bombay.

Mr. W. liBg-WABifBK, MA., C.SL, First ABSistant-CoUectoTj Sat&ra, Bombay.

The fievd, W. MIL LEE, M.A., Principal of the Madras Christian College.

Mr. P. ILLINGANADA MUDALLAE, M.A., Professor of Mathematics, Presidewy College, Madras.

The Honourable Babu Bhudeb Moockbjka CXE., Inspector of Schools, Bengal.

Mr. G. PEABSOK, M.A., Inspector of Schools, Punjab.

The Honourable Maiiaraja Six Joteudbo Mohan Tagosb, K.C.SX, Member of th* Viceroy's LepUatire Council.

Mr. KASHINATH TBIMBUB: TELANG., M.A., XL.B., Barrkier-at-LaTT, Bombay.

Mr. Gr. E, WABD. C-S., Collector of Jatmpur, North-Western Provinces.

The Revd. A. JEAN, D-D. (S.J.), Rector of St. Josephs College, Neg-apatam (uov at TrU&fabpoij).

Mr. C. A. R- BfiOW5is?G, M.A., Inspector General of Sducatioo, Central Provinces,

Mr. BaJI GHULA3E HAS ax, Punjab.

Secretary:

Mr. B. L. BICE, Director of Public Instruction, Mysore and COOTS:.

f The *Resolution* is printed in. *extensors* Apoend's A to this Beport, and a *biwi* therefore he given in the ibUowiug paragraphs. y n;

lution states that, while the Government acknowledged the masterly and comprehensive outline supplied by that Despatch, they deemed it of importance to review the progress made) and to enquire how far the superstructure coresponded with the original design. Such an enquiry was instituted by order of the Secretary of State for India in 1859, shortly after the controlling authority had passed from the East India Company to the Crown. But circumstances prevented the preparation of any complete or comprehensive report. Nearly a quarter of a century had since elapsed, and the Governor General in Council believed that the time had now come for instituting a further and more careful investigation into the existing system, and into the results attained by it, than had hitherto been attempted.*

3. The main Duty of the Commission—In appointing a Commission for that purpose, His Excellency declared that its duty should be to enquire particularly *into* the manner in which *effect* had been given to the Despatch of 1854; and to suggest such methods as it might think desirable, with a view to more completely carrying out the policy therein laid down, t " The Government of India," says the Resolution, " is firmly convinced of the soundness of ce that policy, and has no wish to depart from the principles upon which it is based."

4. Instructions to the Commission: Primary Education—The Governor General in Council desired that the Commission, in enquiring how far these principles had been acted on, " should specially bear in mind the great importance which the Government attaches to the subject of Primary Education. "The development of elementary education was one of the main objects contemplated by the Despatch of 1854. Attention was specially directed in that Despatch to the question c how useful and practical knowledge, suited to every station in life, might be best conveyed to the great mass of the people, who are " utterly incapable of obtaining any education worthy of the name by their own unaided efforts/ and it was desired that * the active measures of Government should be more especially directed for the future to this object.' " Although the matter was thus prominently and at the outset pressed upon the ec attention of the Indian Administrations, there can, His Excellency in Council c believes, be very little doubt that, owing to a variety of circumstances, more "progress has up to the present time been made in high and middle than in "primary education. The Government of India is not disposed in any way to " regret this advance. It would be altogether contrary to its policy to check or "hinder in any degree the further progress of high or middle education. But cf the Government holds that the different branches of Public Instruction should, " if possible, move forward together, and with more equal step than hitherto, and " the principal object, therefore, of the enquiry of the Commission should be the "present state of elementary education throughout the Empire, and the means " by which this can everywhere be extended and improved/ "

5. Instructions to the Commission: Private Efforts and Grants-in-aid*—" While this is the main object to which the enquiries of the Commission "should be directed, the Governor General in Council desires to impress upon it " at the same time the fact that it is not possible for the Government to find " funds sufficient to meet the full requirements of the country in the matter of " primary education, if those requirements are to be judged by any European " standard. The resources at the disposal of Government, whether Imperial, " Provincial, or Local, are, and must long remain, extremely limited in amount, " and the result is, not only that progress must necessarily be gradual, but that,

* Resolution of the Government of India, dated 3rd February 1882, paras. 2-4.
t Resolution, para. 6.

^ satisfactory progress is to be made at all, every available private agency must be called into action to relieve and assist the public funds in connection with every branch of Public Instruction. It was in view of ^e the impossibility of Government alone doing all that must be done to provide adequate means for the education of the Natives of India/ that the grant-in-aid system was ^c elaborated and developed by the Despatch of j 854; and it is to the wider extension of this system, especially in connection with high and middle education, that the Government looks to set free funds which may then be made applicable to the promotion of the education of the masses. ‘ The resources of the State ought/ as remarked by the Secretary of State in Despatch No. 13 of 25th April 1864, ‘to be so applied as to assist those who cannot be expected to help themselves, and the richer classes of the people should gradually be induced to provide for their own education.’⁵

6. Instructions to the Commission: Transfer of Schools to Native Management.—^c In pursuance of this policy, it is the desire of Government to offer every encouragement to Native gentlemen to come forward and aid, even more extensively than heretofore, in the establishment of schools upon the grant-in-aid system: and His Excellency in Council is the more anxious to see this brought about, because, apart altogether from the consequent pecuniary relief to Government, it is chiefly in this way that the Native community will be able to secure that freedom and variety of education which is an essential condition in any sound and complete educational system. . . . The Government is ready therefore to do all that it can to foster such a spirit of independence and self-help. It is willing to hand over any of its own colleges or schools in suitable cases, to bodies of Native gentlemen who will undertake to manage them satisfactorily as aided institutions; all that the Government will insist upon ^{ct} being that due provision is made for efficient management and extended use-^{Cf} fulness. . . . It is specially the wish of Government that municipal bodies ^{ct} should take a large and increasing share in the management of the public schools within the limits of their jurisdictions. The best way of securing this result should also be considered by the Commission/’^t

7. Instructions to the Commission: Bates of fees: Scholarships.— The Governor General in Council next called attention to the statement, not unfrequently made, that the wealthier classes in India do not at present pay enough for the education of their children. He laid down the principle that “ persons in good circumstances should pay the full cost of their children’s education, or at any rate that no part of this should fall upon State funds. But “ in endeavouring to secure this result, care must be taken that no unnecessary “obstacles are thrown in the way of the upward progress of really deserving “ students of the poorer classes.” ^t The funds available for scholarships should be so distributed as to afford ample facilities for obtaining a good secondary education to a large number of youths in the secondary schools. The scholarships tenable during the University course need not be so liberal* but should still be sufficient to hold out a fair opportunity of obtaining an advanced education to the best of the pupils in the middle and high schools. But Government scholarships ought not in any way to be placed on an eleemosynary basis. They “ should always be given as distinct rewards for merit, tested and proved by ⁴⁴ competitive examinations.’⁵ ^J While the State provision for scholarships was to be allotted exclusively by competition, the Governor General in Council pointed out that it “ will leave a wide field open for the establishment of scholarships requiring local or other qualifications through the munificence of private individuals or corporations.”*

^ Resolution, pans. 8

’F Resolution, p&r&s.10 End 11 >4- Resolution, pant, 12.

8. Instructions to the Commission: Indigenous Schools.—In connection with Primary Education, the Commission was directed to "particularly enquire as to the extent to which indigenous schools exist in different parts of the country, and are, or can be, utilised as a part of the educational system. The Government of India is disposed to advocate the making as much use as possible of such schools."* "The great object in the first instance is to get such schools established: their improvement and elevation to a higher standard being, though of great importance, an object of subsequent endeavour/' . . . The Commission should advise as to how this can best be done, without attempting a too rapid advance, or throwing obstacles in the way of the extension of the area of instruction, especially in backward districts.⁵!

9. Instructions to the Commission: Secondary Education—With regard to Secondary Education, the Commission was directed to enquire "into the quality and character of the instruction at present imparted in schools of this class. The great majority of those who prosecute their studies beyond the primary stage will never go beyond the curriculum of the middle, or at furthest of the high schools. It is therefore of the utmost importance that the education they receive should be as thorough and sound as possible. There are grounds for doubting whether there is not, in some Provinces at any rate, much room for improvement in this respect. . . . It would be contrary to the policy of Government to adopt any measures that would have the appearance of restricting aided schools to the use of any particular class of text-books, or to interfere with the free choice of the managers in such matters. . . But it is desirable to know how far the general suggestions of the [Text-book] Committee have found acceptance in the different Provinces, and what is being done to carry them out in the case of both Government and aided instruction."};

10. Instructions to the Commission: Inspection: Female Education—The Commission was also to enquire into the present system of educational inspection, with a view to removing defects, introducing improvements, and securing the aid of a large amount of voluntary agency in the work of inspecting and examining schools. The important and difficult subject of female education was to receive special consideration, together with the best means of encouraging and extending it so far as the circumstances of the country permit.

11. Instructions to the Commission: Subjects exempted from its Enquiries.—While thus assigning a large area of enquiry to the Commission, the Governor General in Council exempted certain special branches of educational work from its investigations. These branches included the general working of the Indian Universities; technical instruction, whether medical, legal, or engineering; the education of Europeans and Eurasians, the Government of India also warned the Commission that in providing for the extension of primary schools, "the limitation imposed upon the action of Government by financial considerations must always be borne in mind."[]

12. Method adopted by the Commission in conducting the Enquiry.—The Education Commission assembled in Calcutta on the 10th of February 1882, and sat regularly until the 31st of March. Its deliberations during this session were chiefly directed to preparing a scheme, with a view to clearly ascertaining the state of education in each of the several Provinces of India. For this purpose, the representative members for each part of India were constituted a Provincial Committee. The Commission

* Resolution, para. 13. f Resolution, para. 15.

* Resolution, para.. 17. || Resolution, para.15.

elaborated a detailed plan upon which the Provincial Committees were, during the ensuing eight months, to draw up a Report dealing with the past history, present condition, and future development of education in then' respective Provinces. Before it separated, the majority of the Bengal witnesses were also examined by the Commission. At the end of March the first session of the Commission in Calcutta terminated, and the members returned to their own duties in the different Presidencies. The next eight months were devoted to the local collection of materials upon which the Commission might base its deliberations during the second session. These materials were of three kinds. First, the evidence of witnesses in each Presidency and Province; second, memorials submitted to the Commission by Associations, individuals, and public bodies throughout India; third, the Provincial Reports drawn up for the Commission by its members, arranged in Committees so as to represent the Provinces to which they respectively belonged. The Commission re-assembled in Calcutta on the 5th of December 1882, and continued its sittings during the following months. It at once appointed six sectional Committees, each of which was instructed to deal with the evidence, memorials, and Provincial Reports bearing on the subjects referred to it, and to prepare Recommendations for discussion by the Commission. Having fully deliberated on the materials before it, and agreed upon its Recommendations, the Commission concluded its collective labours on the 16th of March 1883. Before separating, the Commission placed on record its acknowledgment of the valuable services rendered to it in various ways by its Secretary, Mr. Lewis Rice. The Report was then drawn up by the President of the Commission and a representative Committee of five members,—namely, Mr. Croft (Bengal), Mr. Miller (Madras), Mr. Howell (Central Provinces), Mr. Lee-Wamer (Bombay), Mr. Deighton (North-Western Provinces). Mr. Jacob was entrusted with the preparation of the Statistical Tables contained in the Report—a task which proved to be one of exceptional difficulty. The Commission bad>reft^ed the results of its enquiries to 222 specific Recommendationi^r^f wMcK 4^Jwere passed unanimously, while the remaining 42 were carrieOiy & jrhe Recommendations are to be accepted as the deliberate de<^pm_ of_ ttetyom- mission, and they form the basis of this Report. The was circulated for approval to the members of the Commission in their respective Provinces.

- 13. Brief Survey Of the Evidence.**—The witnesses were chiefly selected by the Provincial Committees, with a view to representing the various educational interests in India; but a number of them consisted of gentlemen who spontaneously requested to be examined. The Commission prepared a series of questions covering the whole area of its enquiry, and forwarded a copy to each witness for consideration. While inviting answers to the particular questions thus circulated, the Commission did not confine the replies of the witnesses to those subjects, but welcomed the evidence of each witness on any educational matter in which he was interested, or with regard to which he had special knowledge. The number of witnesses thus examined was 193, and their evidence, taken as a whole, forms a unique exposition of the most trustworthy opinion in India regarding the instruction of the people. As the enquiries of the Commission were to a large extent directed to the working of the existing system, the Education Department was strongly represented among the witnesses of each Province. The institutions interested in the application of the grant-in-aid principle were numerous represented by Missionaries, both Protestant and Roman Catholic, by delegates selected by Native Educational Societies, and by the Head-masters of Native schools. Higher education was also represented by many gentlemen who, after a distinguished career in the Uni-

versities of Calcutta, Madras, or Bombay, are now actively engaged in Indian professions-] life. Indigenous and primary education was represented not only by a number of witnesses specially interested in the instruction of the lower classes, but also by Pandits and Maulavis of indigenous schools. The various races of India—Hindus, Muhammadans, Sikhs, Parsis,—were impartially heard. Particular care was taken that the educational wants of any class, such as the Muhammadans, who have fallen behind in the race of life under British rule; should receive the fullest consideration. The number of witnesses was approximately fixed at an average of 30 to 40 for each Province; but this territorial standard was modified according to the local necessities of the different parts of India.

14. Local Examination of the Witnesses—The examination of the 193 witnesses was conducted at convenient centres in the Provinces to which they respectively belonged. The President of the Commission made a tour round India, and held a session with the Provincial Committee in each of the main territorial divisions* for the purpose of hearing evidence. The cross-examination of the witnesses was conducted by the President and Provincial Committees at considerable length. The list of witnesses is given in Appendix B to this Report, and the number heard in each Province is summarised below.* The evidence thus collected throughout India, together with statements connected therewith, aggregates about three thousand printed pages.

15. Brief Survey of the Memorials.—The number of the memorials received by the Commission was 323. They came from every part of India, but were most numerous in the Punjab and North-Western Provinces, where the language to be used as the medium of instruction is still a question of keen interest among the people. Of the total number of 323 received throughout India, 140 were submitted by Educational Societies, Municipalities, public bodies, or individuals interested in school work; while 183 maybe described as popular manifestoes purporting to be signed by 233,819 persons. The list of memorials is given in Appendix C to this Report, and the number received from each Province is summarised below, f

16. Brief Survey of the Provincial Reports.—Seven Reports were prepared by the Provincial Committees of the Commission for the territorial divisions of India which those Committees respectively represent. \$

* Number of witnesses heard in each Province—

Madras	33 witnesses
Bombay .	. 35 ?»
Bengal .	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	. 28 ji
Punjab . .	. 45 >1
Central Provinces	. 18 it
TOTAL/	* 193

Several of the Bengal witnesses were heard by the Provincial Committee, presided over by its own Chairman
 † List of memorials received from each Province—

From Madras .	« •	. 22
„ Bombay ▶		. 40
„ Bengal .		. 13
« North-Western Provinces and Oudh		. 145
„ Punjab .		. 96
„ Rajputana	♦	. 1
„ Miscellaneous .		. 6
TOTAL		* 323

j Namely, for Madras, Bombay, Bengal, the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, the Punjab, the Central Provinces and the Kaidara.bad Assigned Districts. The Bengal Provincial Committee have also forwarded for the consideration of the Commission, the Annual Educational Report for Assam, drawn up in the form suggested

Taken as a whole, they exhibit, on a uniform plan and in complete detail, the past history, the present condition, and the future wants of education in each Province of India. They aggregated over 1,100 pages, and have supplied much of the information on which the present Report is based. A copy of each is submitted to the Government with this Report.

17. Summary of the Materials obtained.—The materials collected by the Commission from February to November 1882 consist, therefore, of the evidence of 193 witnesses examined at local centres throughout India; of 323 memorials, chiefly from Associations, or from sections of the public interested in education; and of a special Report for each of the great territorial divisions of India prepared by the Provincial Committee. The Commission re-assembled in Calcutta on the 5th December 1882, to deliberate upon the mass of printed and manuscript documents thus obtained. It divided the questions before it into six principal branches, as follows : (1) Indigenous and Primary Education; (2) Secondary and Collegiate Education; (3) the Internal Administration of the Education Department, including the system of inspection and examinations ; (4) the External Relations of the Education Department, including grants-in-aid, and the withdrawal of Government in favour of native management of colleges and schools; (5) the Education of Special Classes of the community requiring exceptional treatment; (6) Educational Legislation. A series of proposals were drawn up on each of these subjects by the Committee entrusted with its consideration. These proposals were then discussed and adopted, rejected, or modified by the Commission. The conclusions thus arrived at were, as already stated, embodied in 222 specific Recommendations which are to be accepted as the deliberate decisions of the Commission.

18. Twelve chief Divisions of the Enquiry—The Report will accordingly follow the classification indicated in the last paragraph of the questions referred to the Commission by the Government of India in the following twelve Chapters :

- (a) Historical review of education in India; Chapter I.
- (b) Indigenous education; Chapter III.
- (c) Primary education ; Chapter IV.
- (d) Secondary education; Chapter V.
- (e) Collegiate education; Chapter VI.
- (f) Internal administration of the Department: control, inspection, examinations, text-books; Chapter VII.
- (g) External relations of the Department to individuals and public bodies : grants-in-aid, private efforts; Chapter VIII.
- (h) Education of classes requiring special treatment; Chiefs and nobles, the Muhammadans, the aborigines, low-castes, and the poor; Chapter IX.
- (i) Female education; Chapter X.
- (j) Educational Legislation; Chapter XI.
- (k) Financial Summary; Chapter XII.
- (l) Recommendations of the Commission ; Chapter XIII.

CHAPTEK II.

HISTORICAL REVIEW OF EDUCATION IN INDIA.

19. Education in Ancient India.—Since their first appearance in authentic history, the Indians have always enjoyed the reputation of being a learned people. Megasthenes, the Greek ambassador to the court of Chandra Gupta about 300 B.C., found a grave and polished society in which philosophy and science were successfully cultivated and held in honour. The rich stores of Sanskrit literature which have come down to the present age confirm this description. In the four stages prescribed for a Brahman's life, the first, including youth and early manhood, was that of the Brahmachari, or learner, and extended over many years. But the Brahmans confined their teaching of the Dharma-Shastras to their own and the other two "twice-born" castes, and made it penal to communicate any but elementary knowledge to the servile and mixed multitude. The Buddhist reformation placed religion and education on a more popular basis. The Chinese travellers and the Pali texts alike bear witness to this fact; and in the seventh century A.D., the vast monastery of Nalanda formed a seat of learning which recalls, by the numbers and the zeal of its students, the later Universities of mediaeval Europe. After the Musulman conquest, the mosque became in India, as in other countries of Islam, a centre of instruction and of literary activity. Education alike among the Muhammadans and the Hindus is based upon religion, and was supported by endowments and bequests *in pios was*. The East India Company found the four ancient methods of education still at work; in the instruction given by the Brahmans to their disciples; in the *tolss* or seats of Sanskrit learning; and in the *maktabs* and *madrasas*, or schools and colleges of the Muhammadans; and in the large number of humbler village schools which also existed. These village schools gave an elementary education to the trading classes and to the children of the petty landholders and well-to-do families among the cultivators.

20. Education under British Rule.—When the East India Company received charge of Bengal from the Delhi Emperor, it aimed only at discharging the duties fulfilled by the previous ruling power. It respected endowments made to educational institutions, and its earliest efforts were confined to the establishment of a Muhammadan and a Sanskrit college of the old types. But three influences were at work which forced it into new fields of educational activity. A knowledge of English became a means of livelihood to natives at the centres of Government, and a demand arose for English instruction in the Presidency towns. As the old exotic court-language, Persian, fell into disuse, and especially when it ceased to be the language of official life, the demand for education in the vernaculars which had superseded the foreign tongue made itself more widely felt. Meanwhile, a new influence in favour of popular education was being brought to bear upon the Indian Government by missionary and philanthropic bodies both in this country and in Europe. The old system, however, did not give place to the new without a struggle. For many years the medium and the character of the instruction to be given in Government Schools and Colleges were the subject of a vigorous controversy between the Anglicists and the Orientalists. The former party urged that all instruction of the higher kind should be given through the English

language, and should be in accordance with modern ideas. The latter, while admitting that what was then taught as science had no right to that title, wished to maintain the study of the Oriental classics in accordance with the methods indigenous to the country. Both parties broadly and prominently admitted the claims of the vernacular languages. Among the Orientalists were many distinguished officers of Government, and for some time their views prevailed in the General Committee of Public Instruction. But the minority gradually became more and more powerful; and when in 1835 the two parties were so evenly balanced that things had come to a deadlock, it was Macaulay's advocacy of English education that turned the scale against the Orientalists. His famous Minute was immediately followed by a Resolution of the Governor-General, which plainly declared for English as against Oriental education. A few years later the Orientalists made several efforts to rescind this Resolution and to revert to the previous policy in favour of the classical languages of India. They received, however, no encouragement from the Government; and in 1839 Lord Auckland published a Minute which finally closed the controversy. The purport of this Minute was "that although English was to be retained as the medium of the higher instruction in European literature, philosophy, and science, the existing oriental institutions were to be kept up in full efficiency, and were to receive the same encouragement as might be given to the students at English institutions. Vernacular instruction was to be combined with English, full choice being allowed to the pupils to attend whichever tuition they might individually prefer."* Since that time education in India has proceeded upon the recognition of the value of English instruction, of the duty of the State to spread Western knowledge among its subjects, and of the valuable aid which missionary and philanthropic bodies can render in the task. In reviewing the progress of education we propose to consider, first, the early efforts of the East India Company and of private societies prior to 1854; secondly, the principles laid down for the guidance of the Departments in the Despatches of 1854 and 1859; and thirdly, the progress of education in each Province of India between 1854 and 1882. The condition of education in India in 1881-82 in every class of colleges and schools, the internal mechanism, as well as the external relations of the Departments, the question of legislation, and the financial administration of education will form the subjects of separate Chapters of this Report.

21. Madras: Education prior to 1854.—Education has never been wholly neglected in the Southern Districts which now form the Presidency of Madras. The indigenous schools, a relic of very early times, fell far short of modern European standards, but they helped, as elsewhere in India, to raise the general standard of intelligence; and they gave a practical training to their pupils for the affairs of life. In 1822, when the British Government, represented by Sir Thomas Munro, began to manifest an interest in popular instruction, and instituted such enquiries as could then be made, 157,000 boys and more than 4,000 girls were found in attendance at about 12,000 schools. With the exception of a few institutions conducted by European Missionaries, all existing schools were supported and managed by the people themselves. The instruction given was either extremely rudimentary, or when it dealt with higher subjects, aimed at little more than the cultivation of the memory.

22. Madras: Government Measures, 1826 to 1854.—The Government of Madras accordingly established, in 1826, a Board of Public Instruction, and under the care of that Board, nearly one hundred schools were opened in the rural districts, together with a central institution for the training of teachers

* Howell's Note on Education prior to 1854, page 42.

in Madras. This central institution supplied eventually the basis of the Madras High School; but the schools in the Districts languished, and in a few years were abolished as failures. By appointing other Boards and by instituting various examinations, Government made several subsequent endeavours to encourage a demand for a better education than the indigenous schools afforded. But up to 1854, the only attempt which proved to be a success was the Madras High School. Founded on the Central Madras Institution of 1826, it was opened as a high school in 1841, and for many years was conducted by Mr. E. B. Powell, afterwards Director of Public Instruction. The high school quickly gained the reputation which, under the name of the Presidency College, it has uniformly preserved. Two schools of a similar character were founded at Cuddalore and Puajamahendri, in 1853 and 1854 respectively. When, therefore, the Despatch of 1854 was written, these three institutions in which English was taught were the only result of the efforts which Government had made during twenty-eight years.

23. Madras: Private Effort, 1786 to 1854,—Meantime, other

agencies had been at work. Schools for Eurasians had long flourished in Madras. One of them, the Military Orphan Asylum, founded in 1786, became widely known through the method of instruction borrowed from the indigenous system and first applied in it by Dr. Bell. In schools of this class, a few natives received a fair education. But the philanthropic spirit from which such institutions sprang, made its effects felt on the natives of the country more directly by another channel. As noticed in paragraph 96 of the Despatch of 1854, Southern India owes much of its educational progress to the efforts of missionary societies,—efforts early recognised by the Local Government. In 1790, the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge opened a school for natives, which, after passing through many changes, still flourishes as St. Peter's College at Tanjore. The Government of Madras made grants to the Society for this institution, and for one or two others, with which the venerated name of Schwarz was connected. In Madras, therefore, missionary effort in education had obtained State aid, and thus established the claims of private effort to the recognition of the State, before the close of the eighteenth century. The Missionaries of the American Board opened a number of primary schools in the Madura District in 1834; and maintained for many years, subsequent to 1835, a school in the town of Madura in which English was taught. But the measure which did most for education in the South was taken by another missionary body. In 1837, Mr. Anderson, the first Missionary of the Scottish Church to Southern India, opened an institution in Madras. He aimed at implanting in natives of the country a desire for education of a distinctively Western type, communicated through the medium of the English language. The success of the experiment was unequivocal from the outset. Mr. Anderson's Institution became a centre of educational activity, and was surrounded in a few years by vigorous branch schools. It is now represented by two great institutions in the Presidency town, the Madras Christian College, and the Church of Scotland Missionary Institution, and by the many auxiliary schools of these parent institutions in Madras and the surrounding Districts. Since 1837, and particularly from 1841, when, as already mentioned, the Government High School was opened, education has made steady progress in Southern India. The example of the Scottish Church was quickly followed by other Christian associations. The Church Missionary Society established their college at Masulipatam in 1841, and the Jesuit Fathers their college at Negapatam in 1846. In Madras itself, two other institutions were also opened by the Wesleyan Mission in 1851, and by the London Missionary Society in 1853. Most of these institutions had dependent schools connected with them. The work of the Church Missionary and Propagation Societies

expanded rapidly in Tinnevely and Tanjore. It is estimated that in 1854 about 30,000 boys were being educated in schools conducted by missionary societies, and about 3,000 were obtaining at least the elements of a liberal education in English.

It was not until 1842 that native effort began to work on the modern basis, by the opening of Pachaiyappa's Institution in Madras. The funds were derived from a charitable bequest of old standing, which by a decree of the Supreme Court was made available for educational purposes, and placed under a body of native gentlemen as trustees. The school at once took a high position, and has continued from its foundation until now to be the most distinguished example of native educational effort in the Presidency. In 1854, the institution in Madras and its branch schools, which the trustees had opened at the sacred cities of Conjeveram and Chidambaram, were giving a high class of education to about a thousand pupils.

24. Madras: Female Education, 1841 to 1854—Female education had also made a certain amount of progress independently of the State, and chiefly under missionary management, before the publication of the Despatch of 1854. Boarding-schools were maintained from an early period by the Church of England Societies in Tinnevely; but they were almost exclusively attended by the daughters of converts to Christianity. The first direct effort at educating Hindu girls of the higher castes was made at Madras in 1841 by the Missionaries of the Scottish Church. The attempt had to struggle against many obstacles; and in 1843, the school was still on so small a scale that only nine pupils were in regular attendance. The difficulties were, however, gradually overcome, and since 1843, the growth of female education among the Hindus, though not rapid has been uninterrupted. In 1843 a girls' school, partly under native management, was opened in Marathas. This was the precursor of many more; but even yet, female schools in the Presidency are few and small outside of Madras. In 1854, there were probably 7,000 girls at schools conducted by missionary societies; and although the bulk of these were Native Christians, there was also a considerable proportion of Hindus belonging to the higher castes. The nine pupils at the school of the Free Church of Scotland in 1843 had increased to about 700 in 1854.

25. Madras: General Summary.—Thus, when the Despatch of 1854 appeared, a good foundation for education had been laid. The three Government schools, although the number of their pupils was but small, were efficient and served as useful models. The natives, besides continuing to maintain their indigenous schools, had begun to demand education of a modern type. Missionary schools had also been set up in many Districts and encouraged by the State. While the Presidency town had kept the lead in many ways, education had been widely developed throughout the Province.

26. Bombay: Education prior to 1854—The educational history of Bombay prior to 1854 is mainly a record of the work of missionary societies and of the Board of Education established in 1840. During the ascendancy of the Portuguese in Western India, their religious orders had organised a fairly complete system of education, which was developed until their expulsion by the Marathas. The orphanages and colleges established by the Franciscan and Jesuit orders were closed before the middle of the eighteenth century; but the parish schools of the Portuguese territories survived the wreck of the power under which they had grown up. When British rule established itself in the capital of the Deccan, a remarkable

influx of missionary enterprise took place. The religious societies of America, England, Scotland, and Ireland, vied with each other in an honourable rivalry to cover the newly-acquired territories with schools. The American Missionary Society opened a school for boys in Bombay in 1814; and ten years later, established the first school for native girls in Western India. Their most successful operations were conducted at Ahmadnagar in the Deccan, where they still maintain several schools. The Scottish Church, with the late Dr. Wilson as its honoured representative, worked chiefly in Bombay and the Konkan; the London Missionary Society selected Surat and other towns in Gujarat as its first field of labour. The operations of the Church Missionary Society were much wider. In addition to its central Anglo-Vernacular School at Bombay, established in memory of Robert Money, its Missionaries were engaged in the work of education in the Poona and Nasik Districts of the Deccan, at Thana and Bassein in the Konkan, and even, in the distant Province of Sind. The Irish Presbyterian Missionary Society opened both English and Vernacular Schools in the Native States of Kathiawar, and took over charge of the Gujarat Schools from the London Missionary Society, which thenceforth devoted its attention to the southern parts of the Presidency. Thus, in every Province of the Bombay Presidency, missionary enterprise was at work. Its operations were not confined to elementary education, and they included schools for girls as well as for boys.

27. Bombay: Private Effort, 1815 to 1840.—In 1815, the Bombay Education Society, supported entirely by voluntary contributions, took upon itself the duty of educating the poor, not merely in the Presidency town, but in the adjoining Districts. In seven years, the Society found itself unequal to the discharge of the growing responsibilities which fell upon it. It therefore devoted its attention exclusively to European and Indo-European education, and left the task of providing for the instruction of the native population to a new association established in 1822, and called the Native School-book and School-society. The importance of the new Society was at once realised, and Mr. Mountstuart Elphinstone became its first President. The whole field of operation was surveyed and a census taken of existing agencies. Arrangements were made to supply good school-books. The wants of the several Districts were ascertained. A line of policy was laid down, and assistance obtained from the State. Mr. Elphinstone's minute on the Society's Report will be found in the Report of the Bombay Provincial Committee; it discloses the wide aims of the Society and explains its success. Not merely in Bombay but in the three Divisions of the Presidency, outside Sind, the Society actively engaged in the work of organising and extending education. Its distinguished President won for himself the confidence of the native community, and when he retired in 1827, a fund, ultimately amounting to nearly Rs. 4,50,000, was raised to perpetuate his memory. Out of this fund was created the Presidency College of Bombay. The management of the College was vested in a Council of nine Trustees, subject to the general control of Government, and independent of the Native School Society. Owing to this dual management and to other causes, notwithstanding its liberal endowments the college did not at first prosper. In 1832, the Native School Society relinquished its executive connection with the District Schools in Gujarat, which were then placed under the Revenue Officers. The transfer proved, however, injurious to the extension of primary education. Both the primary schools in the Districts and the Presidency College bore witness to the failure of educational institutions entrusted to the management of Government unless directed by a special agency. These considerations led to the conclusion that it would be advisable to strengthen a body which had accomplished so much as the Native School Society, and at the same time to terminate an arrangement

which had injured primary education in the districts, and contributed to the failure of the Presidency College. A Board of Education was therefore created in 1840 consisting of six members, of whom three were appointed by the Native Education Society as its last act, and three by Government.

28- Bombay: Board of Education, 1840 to 1854.—The Board of education was the force which directed the movement of education in Bombay, before the State recognised its duty of organising a Department of Public Instruction. Its success was partly due to the impulse which the efforts of the Missionaries had given to education, and partly to the alleged poverty of the indigenous system in Western India. It has been noticed that the District Officers had failed to manage successfully the primary schools entrusted to their care. The creation of the Board was thus the natural outcome both of the growing demand for instruction and of the need of a central authority. The history of education in Bombay between 1840 and 1855 is the history of the Board thus created, and of the missionary societies which continued their independent work. Annual reports published by the Board bear testimony to the soundness of their policy and to their far-sighted views on education* The Board took over all the Native Education Society's Vernacular Schools in Bombay and in the rural Districts, as well as the Government Vernacular Schools throughout the Presidency. They assumed charge of the English schools, of the Poona Sanskrit College founded in 1821, of the Normal classes, and of the Elphinstone College. They divided the educational area of the Presidency into three divisions, each under a European Inspector; established School Committees, and stipendiary studentships; and undertook to open a vernacular school in every village containing 2,000 inhabitants, provided the people subscribed a certain share of the cost. They also enquired into the condition of indigenous schools, and ascertained that in 1842 there were 1,420 such schools attended by upwards of 30,000 scholars. As, however, the funds at their disposal were inadequate, and the general character of the indigenous schools seemed indifferent, the Board rendered them no aid, and preferred to carry out the policy bequeathed to them by Mr. Mountstuart Elphinstone. In 1843, Sir Erskine Perry became the President of the Board, and continued to hold that office until 1852. He was a strong advocate of English schools, and of leaving the education of the masses to the indirect influence of the downward filtration policy, holding that it was better to concentrate on the higher education of the few a grant which was inadequate to make any impression on the masses. But, at the same time, he was anxious to open higher education to the poor, and to encourage a thorough study of the vernacular *pari passu* with English. On his retirement, only 43 Vernacular schools had been added to the list of Board-schools, whilst the number of English schools and their attendance had been doubled. His special encouragement of higher education involved a deviation from the previous tendency of the educational movement in Bombay, and met with some opposition. But his policy stimulated private enterprise, and called forth public liberality. Nine private English schools were maintained by their promoters as a means of livelihood at the Presidency town; liberal endowments were created for the foundation of girls' schools in Ahmedabad; and the distant town of Dhulia subscribed Rs. 21,000 for a school fund. On Sir Erskine Perry's retirement from the direction of the Board, a reaction commenced in favour of primary education. Small schools (i) for the first time offered to indigenous schools; appointments in the lower grades of the public service were thrown open to public competition; and the State subsidy for education was increased to Rs. 2,50,000. The Board now undertook to open a school in any village in the Presidency, on the condition that the inhabitants would engage to defray half the master's salary and to provide

a school-room and class-books. Thirty-five villages immediately applied for schools on these terms, and twenty-five of the demands were complied with. In the following year, 1854, the number of applications from one Division alone amounted to no fewer than 84. The number of English and Normal vernacular schools was also increased, and Sind now began to be provided for. A school for Hindus of the lowest castes was opened in this year at Ahmadnagar. The first school of this kind had been established in Poona a few years before, by a private person, and the Scottish Mission at Surat had opened similar schools in 1853. The public libraries aided by the Education Board amounted to 22 ; and during the year 46,000 copies of elementary school-books were printed for the book-depositories at Bombay and Poona.

29. Bombay: Female Education, 1824 to 1854—It has been shown that the first attempt at educating Hindu girls in Madras was made by the Missionaries of the Scottish Church in 1841. To the American Missionary Society is due the credit of having opened the first native girls' school in Bombay in 1824. By the year 1829, no fewer than 400 female pupils were receiving instruction in their schools. In 1827, the Scottish Missionary Society had already attracted 300 girls to their schools, and in 1840, five schools for the daughters of the higher classes of Hindus were opened in the neighbourhood of Poona by the Society. The Church Missionary Society established their first female school in 1826; and thus the cause of female education was actively taken in hand by the missionary societies of Bombay, from the earliest commencement of their labours in the field of education. By 1851, native society had already given satisfactory proof of its independent interest in extending education to girls. In that year, an endowment fund of Rs. 20,000 was created by Mr. Maganbhai Karamchand, of Ahmedabad, for the foundation of two girls' schools in that city. The institutions here flourished without interruption, and still occupy a high position amongst the numerous schools for girls which have been established in the Division of Gujarat. In the same year, a native gentleman of Poona, Mr. Joti Govindrao Phule, opened a private school at Poona, which was long held in high repute, "While the missionary societies, and a few native gentlemen of position, were thus engaged, a still more important stimulus to the cause of female education was supplied by Professor Patton of the Elphinstone College. He promoted the formation of a "Students' Literary and Scientific Society," which entirely supported in the city of Bombay nine vernacular free schools for girls attended by more than 650 pupils.

30. Bombay: General Summary*—When the Board of Education resigned office in May 1855, they were able to show that during their 15 years' administration the expenditure on education, together with the number of schools and scholars, had nearly trebled* while the quality of the instruction imparted had greatly improved. With the single exception of girls' schools which they left entirely to private enterprise, they had laid the foundations of a system of education which anticipated many of the principles of the Despatch of 1854. The way had been prepared for a University, by the establishment at Bombay and Poona of institutions for imparting instruction in Literature, Law, Medicine, and Civil Engineering. At all the District head-quarter stations in the Presidency, except Kaira, an English school had been established, as a model to excite and to encourage imitation* Vernacular schools controlled by the Board were springing up on all sides, while at the same time the indigenous schools were being inspected and encouraged. A very interesting feature of the last period of the Board's administration was the introduction of the system of primary schools ad minis-

tered by the State, but mainly supported by the people themselves. This system may be regarded as the germ from which the local fund schools that now exist were developed.

31. Bengal: Education prior to 1854.—A vigorous system of indigenous education has, at all times within historical memory, flourished in Bengal. Under the early Brahman civilisation, the instruction of the youth of the higher castes formed a religious duty, and in the case of the Brahmans themselves, the years devoted to learning were recognised as one of the four periods in the scheme of each man's life. When the English acquired the country, they found a number of scattered institutions, known as *tols*, devoted to Sanskrit instruction on the ancient methods; a number of learned Muhammadans, usually attached to noble families or to mosques, who were engaged in teaching the youth of that creed; and a number of village schools of a humbler sort, which gave a practical, although an irregular, education to the lower orders. These three classes of institutions have been preserved in the educational system introduced by the British in Bengal. The old Sanskrit method may still be seen at work in the *tols* of Nadiya, while its modern counterpart flourishes in the Sanskrit College in Calcutta. Muhammadan learning on the orthodox basis is maintained by the Calcutta Madrasa or central Muhammadan college, and by 1,250 recognised Muhammadan schools or foundations, known as *maktabs*. The ancient village schools are now represented by upwards of 50,000 lower primary schools aided or inspected by the Education Department, and by upwards of 4,000 which have not yet been incorporated into the system. The re-organisation of public instruction upon a pre-existing basis has, from the first, characterised British educational efforts in Lower Bengal. In 1781, Warren Hastings, the first Governor General of India, established the Calcutta Madrasa as a seat of Muhammadan learning. The Permanent Settlement of 1793 recognised in perpetuity the rent-free grants of land enjoyed alike by the *tols* and the Muhammadan *maktabs*. In 1811, the Court entertained proposals for still further encouraging the *tols* by two Sanskrit Colleges in Nadiya and TLRhut. But shortly afterwards took place, both in England and India, the renewal of the Company's Charter in 1813, brought into prominence other views, and eventually gave a new direction to State education. The truth is, a demand had sprung up for a class of instruction different from that imparted by the ancient methods. The upper classes no longer desired merely a traditional knowledge of the Sastras or of the Koran. They wished to give their children an education which would enable them to make their way in life. In 1817, certain wealthy native citizens of Calcutta opened the Hindu College, for the education in English of children of the higher castes. The School Book Society, established in the same year, undertook the preparation of works, suitable for school classes, in English and the vernaculars. During the next sixteen years, a struggle went on between education in the ancient writings conducted upon the ancient methods, and education in modern branches of knowledge through the medium of the English language. An English education began to be recognised as an assured means of livelihood. In 1819, the School Society set on foot a project for establishing schools, both English and vernacular, all over the country, with its central organisation in Calcutta. Missionary effort also began to make itself felt. During the ten years from the renewal of the Charter in 1813, the fresh impulse given to education was really the result of private efforts, which were partly due to natives as in the case of the Calcutta Hindu College, and partly due to joint Associations of English and native gentlemen, or to missionary bodies as in the case of the Baptist Press at Serampur.

32. Bengal: The Committee of Public Instruction, 1823 to 1842 —

The Charter of 1813 had provided a sum of Rs. 1,00,000 to be expended annually on education from the public revenues. In 1823, the Indian Government, under pressure of Parliamentary enquiries and non-official Societies, at length organised measures for giving effect to this provision of its Charter. It appointed a Committee of Public Instruction, consisting of distinguished public officers, for the control of education. The action of the Committee is thus described by one of our colleagues, Mr. Howell, in his Note on, Education in India : “ From its earliest constitution this Committee was guided by two great principles, which became traditional, and had the most important effect upon the progress of education. The first was an endeavour to win the confidence of the educated and influential classes, by encouraging the learning and literature that they respected, and by strictly avoiding any suspicion of interference with religion. The second principle was that, as the funds at the disposal of the Committee were quite inadequate for any purpose of general education, the best application of them would be to high education, which was of course out of the reach of the masses and only attainable by the few. From the former principle sprung the controversy between the Anglicists and Orientalists, that grew in intensity during the first twelve years of the Committee’s existence and was only finally settled in 1839. From the latter principle, founded on the view that schools must be Government institutions, and that reconstruction and not improvement was the business of the Committee, resulted the policy which was long maintained.” In 1824, the Committee established the Calcutta Sanskrit College, against the wishes of a numerous body of Native memorialists, with Raja Rammohan Roy at their head, who prayed that the college might be for English, and not for Sanskrit teaching. But under Lord William Bentinck, the cause of English education, as opposed to instruction exclusively in the ancient classical languages of India, rapidly gained ground. Under his auspices, Mr. Adam, about 1835, conducted a widespread enquiry into the then existing state of popular education. Mr. Adam estimated the number of village schools and patshalas at about 100,000 in Lower Bengal, and in one of the ablest Reports ever written in India, earnestly pleaded for the instruction of the people. No general effort was, however, made to assist or improve the indigenous schools until 1855. In 1835, a Government Resolution, inspired by Macaulay’s condemnation of the old systems of oriental learning, decided the long controversy between the Orientalists and the Anglicists in favour of education through the medium of the English language. The freedom conferred in the same year upon the Press, the abolition of Persian as the language of the Courts in 1837, and the wider career and larger responsibilities accorded to native judicial officers by a series of Acts from 1836 to 1843, gave an impulse to education on the new basis. The sums placed at the disposal of the Committee of Public Instruction had risen from Rs. 1,00,000 in 1823 to 4,50,000 in 1805 ; and in 1839, the Committee found itself in a position to establish a system of substantial scholarships in English-teaching schools. It divided the country into nine educational circles, in each of which there was to be a central college, while every District within the circle was to be provided with a school teaching both English and the vernacular. In 1830, Dr. Alexander Duff, as Missionary of the Scottish Church, established in Calcutta the college now represented by the Free Church of Scotland’s Institution and the General Assembly’s Institution of the Church of Scotland.

33. Bengal: Council of Education, 1842-54. — In 1842-43, the old Committee of Public Instruction gave place to a more powerful body, known as the Council of Education. The Council directed its efforts chiefly, although,

not exclusively, to higher instruction in English and the vernacular. It organised a fairly complete system of examinations, with scholarships, both, vernacular and English, for distinguished students, and it endeavoured to provide that success at its examinations should practically lead to employment in the public service, while using its examinations as a means for raising the standard of education throughout Lower Bengal, the Council of Education did much to improve the character of the text-books, and to create a regularly trained staff of schoolmasters. After twelve years of unremitting activity, it had raised the number of institutions under its control from 28 in 1843 to 151 in 1855, and the number of pupils from 4,632 in 1843 to 13,163 in 1855. The number of teachers had, during the same time, multiplied from 191 to 455, while the annual expenditure by Government had only increased from Rs. 4,12,284 to Rs. 5,94,428. The Council of Education had secured a large measure of success alike in extending higher instruction, and in creating a general sense of the pecuniary value of a good education. But it made at this time no attempt to deal with the 100,000 indigenous village schools, which

* Mr. Adam's enquiries had disclosed in 1835. Before the Council gave place in 1855 to the Department of Public Instruction, it had, however, set up in different parts of the country vernacular schools to serve as models of instruction upon the modern basis. Lord Hardinge, between 1844 and 1848, sanctioned 101 such schools. The schools on the whole failed, their places being already occupied by the indigenous system; but those of them which survived long continued to bear the name of the Governor General by whom they were founded. A scheme for a University in Calcutta was under consideration when the Despatch of 1854 arrived, and the Council made over its functions to the new Department of Public Instruction.

34. North-Western Provinces: Education prior to 1854—The first step taken by the British Government towards the education of the people in the North-Western Provinces, was the establishment of the Benares Sanskrit College in 1791. During the next half century, the management of education in the North-Western Provinces continued in the hands of the Government of India acting through its Committee of Public Instruction. In 1843, the control of funds was made over to the Local Government, and administered by Local Committees. Until this year, State education concerned itself chiefly with colleges, which in their earlier period were of an oriental character, but became gradually de-orientalised after the publication of Lord William Bentinck's Resolution in 1835.

35. North-Western Provinces: Government Measures, 1791 to 1854.—The Colleges established during the first period, from 1791 to 1843, were three in number; at Benares, Agra, and Delhi. The Benares College, partly on account of incompetent and dishonest management, and partly because the course of instruction was itself of little practical value, obtained no real success till about forty years after its foundation. But with the introduction of English, and under the skilful organisation of Dr. Ballantyne, rapid progress was made, and before 1854, the College had completely changed its character. In the place of obsolete studies negligently pursued, Dr. Ballantyne substituted a liberal education, somewhat similar in character to that prescribed by the Indian Universities of the present day. Discipline and regularity succeeded to confusion and misrule; a system of stipends, attracting but a scanty attendance of fastidious students, gave way to the general payment of fees. The numbers steadily increased, and although the College was no longer of an oriental type, Sanskrit literature became a real and fruitful study. Western science let in a light on what Eastern learning had left dark; Western methods were applied to

problems of language and to systems of jurisprudence. The Colleges at Agra and Delhi, founded between 1823 and 1825, had a quicker growth; partly because they took advantage of the experience gained at Benares, and partly because religious prejudices were less powerful than at that centre of Hinduism. They admitted Musalmans as well as Hindus, and prescribed a course of instruction more adapted to the practical requirements of modern life. As at Benares, the question of stipends for some time caused much difficulty. Long use had sanctioned the practice, and the ancient native seats of learning were almost exclusively charitable foundations. Of any sentiment involving a loss of self-respect in those gratuitously educated, Hindus and Musalmans were alike ignorant; as their religions consider it a pious duty to receive as well as to impart knowledge. For a time, therefore, they resisted the payment of fees, and against the withdrawal of stipends rebelled by desertion. Patience, however, on the part of the authorities, and a growing appreciation of the money value of English education, gradually reconciled the people to the new system. In 1854, the students in the three colleges numbered 976; but only a small proportion of them were in classes corresponding with those of the present colleges. A college then contained classes in which the alphabet was taught, under the same roof with classes reading Shakespeare, the Calculus, Smith's Wealth of Nations, and the Raxnayana. Except that it contained forty or fifty more advanced students, and that its discipline was more perfect, it did not differ from the secondary schools which sprang up between 1820 and 1854 in the more important towns* such as Allahabad, Meerut, and Bareilly. Of these schools there were eight in 1843 with an attendance roll of 1,007. But the establishment of many of them was premature* and in 1853-54, the eight had fallen to three, and the pupils to 779. Of the schools which survived, that at Bareilly was afterwards raised, for a time, to the status of a College, while those at Ajmir and Sagar are represented by the high schools of the present day. Missionary enterprise had also been at work in this Province, and the Despatch found over 4,000 pupils in missionary schools of which the returns are forthcoming.

3. Forth-Western Provinces: Indigenous Education prior to

1854 —The English-teaching schools and colleges which have been described touched the merest fragment of the town population, and did not touch the rural classes at all*. Until 1846, whatever instruction those classes received was conveyed in their own indigenous schools. Something more was required; and in 1846 the Local Government declared in the following terms the policy which they intended to pursue: "Landed property in these Provinces is found to be very minutely subdivided, and the existing rights in the land are of many different kinds. In prosecution of its duty the Government has made great exertions to protect these rights by defining their nature and extent, and by devising a system for their complete registration. The efficiency of this system depends on the ability of the people to comprehend it, and to take precautions that whatever affects themselves is accurately shown in the registers. For this purpose it is necessary that they should be able to read and write, and should understand the elementary rules of arithmetic." Actuated by this benevolent policy* the authorities had various courses open to them. They might have laboured to improve and extend the indigenous system, or they might have exclusively set up superior schools of their own. Or, again, they might have combined the two systems. We have only to show the course which they did pursue and the reasons which induced them to choose that course. It would be out of place here to criticise the policy which they deliberately adopted, and perhaps at this distance of time it would be difficult to offer any decided opinion on the matter. It is, of course, possible that the enquiries instituted did not ascertain with complete accuracy the proportion of pupils

attending the indigenous schools. But in 1848 it was computed that out of 1,900,000 males of a school-going age, only 68,000 were receiving any instruction. With a few exceptions in which Sanskrit, Arabic, and Persian were intelligently taught, the schools were considered as hardly answering the Western idea of the word in a single respect. They were not permanent; for a teacher would, perhaps only for a few months, gather round him half a dozen pupils who after his departure might or might not find some one to take his place. They could hardly be said to have had any system at all. The subjects taught were considered almost useless for the object which the Government desired. A little reading, chiefly of sacred texts, a very little writing, and some elementary arithmetic comprised the usual course. Books were almost unknown. The teachers, as a rule illiterate, seemed to offer but little prospect of that rapid improvement which was required. The difficulties in the path of reform, however, lay not only nor chiefly in the character of the schools and the unfitness of their masters. Religious feelings and interested motives combined to excite and keep alive a dread of any interference from without. It seemed also clearly impossible, without great waste of money, to attempt any complete scheme of mass education, while the information at the disposal of Government was so imperfect. Eight Districts were therefore selected for experiment, and Mr. H. S. Reid was appointed Visitor-General, with a adequate staff of subordinates, to push forward more minute enquiries and suggestions in the schools already in existence, to encourage their improvement, to prepare suitable books, and to choose teachers for them.

At the same time a number of model schools were maintained by the Government at certain central points. In order and system they differed greatly from anything to which the rural classes had been accustomed. In their studies they looked to what was practically useful, one main object being to substitute the homely vernaculars for a foreign literature to which the more ambitious of the indigenous schools were so much addicted. The lines thus laid down in 1850 were closely followed for the next four or five years. It may be that the form of encouragement given to the indigenous schools was not the most suitable; but, after a review of the progress made, the Local Government arrived at the conclusion that it was unsatisfactory, and gradually abandoned the original scheme for one in which the control of education should be more entirely in its hands. Supported by the voluntary contributions of the landholders but managed by Government officers, the village schools, then organised, slowly displaced the indigenous maktab and pathsala, and at length became the only form of primary vernacular education which the Government cared to promote. Mr. Thomason was the first Lieutenant-Governor of the North-West who gave a permanent impulse to popular education. He instituted a series of enquiries with a view to persuading the people to set up schools for themselves, and laid the foundation of the existing system of education. The establishment of the tahsili or higher vernacular schools is thus described by a Resolution of the Government of the North-Western Provinces in 1850: "There will be a Government village school at the head-quarters of every tahsildari, which will be conducted by a schoolmaster, who will receive from Rs. 10 to 20 per mensem, besides such fees as he may collect from his scholars." The tahsili school taught reading and writing, accounts, and land mensuration on the native system, with geography, history, and geometry, through the medium of the vernacular. In 1854, the attendance at tahsili schools numbered 4,668, at the moderate State expenditure of Rs. 9,565. The halkabandi, or lower primary vernacular schools, which now number thousands in the North-Western Provinces, originated about 1851 in an experiment made by Mr. Alexander, Collector of Muttra. His plan was to choose a pargana,

and to ascertain, **how** many children of a school-going age it contained, what revenue it paid, and what expense it could therefore bear. A cluster of four or five villages was then marked out, and the most central of the villages was fixed upon as the site of the school. The cost was levied by a voluntary rate in aid, which originally varied in the different Districts, but ultimately the zamindars agreed to contribute towards education at the rate of one per cent, on their land revenue. Mr. Alexander's idea was quickly taken up in other Districts. In 1853, Agra, Bareilly, Etah, Etawah, Mainpuri, Muttra, and Shahjahanpur all had a certain number of *halkabandi* schools, and at the close of 1854 there were about 17,000 boys receiving education in them. The teacher's pay varied from Rs. 3 to 7, the average being about Rs. 4-10-0. Reading and writing with a little arithmetic, mensuration, and geography, were the subjects taught, and although more abstruse studies were subsequently included, it is doubtful whether such ambitious additions served a useful end.

37. North-Western Provinces: General Summary—The results attained, chiefly by the system inaugurated by Mr. Thomason, prior to the establishment of the present Department of Public Instruction, are thus summarised from the report of the Provincial Committee for the North-Western Provinces. In 1854, the total number of schools, in the eight selected Districts, is stated to have been 3,770 with 49,037 scholars. This, however, includes 1,949 scholars at missionary schools, and excludes 1,525 the Delhi and Benares Colleges and the Sagar and Ajmer High Schools. Of the 49,037 scholars, 6,588 owed their education to Government; 17,000 attended the primary schools supported by the zamindars; while upwards of 25,000 are put down to schools of the indigenous class. According to the best statistics *now* available, the total number of institutions in this Province in 1854 was 3,920 with nearly 53,000 pupils. The expenditure by Government was at this time about Rs. 2,25,000, of which Rs. 1,80,000 went to the colleges and high schools.

38. Punjab : Education prior to 1854,—The Punjab became a British Province only in 1849, and the difficult problems arising out of the annexation left little leisure for educational efforts, before the foundation of the present Department of Public Instruction on the basis of the Despatch of 1854. On assuming charge of the Province, however, the British Government had expressly declared its intention to take in hand the education of the masses. It found a three-fold indigenous system of instruction at work, consisting of Hindu village schools corresponding to those of the North-Western Provinces; Sikh schools, a large proportion of which taught in the Gurmukhi character the language of the Sikh Scriptures or Granth; and Muhammadan schools, usually conducted by the Mulla of the local mosque, and giving instruction of a strongly religious type. These indigenous institutions were left undisturbed, but during the interval between 1849 and 1854 the new Administration established only about a dozen schools in the Province. In the latter year, there were Government Anglo-vernacular schools at Amritsar, Rawal Pindi, and Gujarat. An attempt had also been made in places, especially in the Gujarat District, to introduce the village school system of the North-Western Provinces; encouragement was given to Missionary schools at Amritsar, Jerozpur, Ludhiana, Ambala, Kangra and Kotgarh, some of which had existed before the annexation of the Province. But the only conspicuous Government institution within the territories now known as the Punjab was the Delhi College; and Delhi was not included within the Province until 1858. As, however, this institution has been identified during the past quarter of a century with the Punjab, we may here briefly

contributions from Muhammadan gentlemen, was founded at Delhi for the study of Persian and Arabic, but owing to the reduced circumstances of the patrons the funds failed. In 1825 (as we have mentioned in connection with the North-Western Provinces), a Government college was opened at Delhi under the Committee of Public Instruction; and in 1829, it was endowed by a munificent bequest of Us. 1,70,000 from the Nawab Itimad-ud-Daula, Prime Minister of the King of Oudh. The application of the endowment was the subject of much discussion ; but it was finally resolved by the Committee that the Delhi College should be made an efficient institution for Muhammadan learning. This resolution was not, however, carried into effect, the Delhi College being, even in 1830, of the same type as that at Agra. The Delhi College always attracted a large preponderance of Hindus; and for some years the endowment has been applied to the support of a successful middle school, attended almost exclusively by the Muhammadans, and known as the Anglo-Arabic school. A school of Engineering, opened at Lahore prior to 1854, was soon afterwards abolished.

39. Central Provinces: Education prior to 1854In the Central Provinces the case was not very different. The East India Company acquired from the Marathas in 1817-18 the Northern Districts of these Provinces, long known as the Sagar and Narbada territories. Nagpur and the adjoining Districts, until their lapse to the British in 1853, belonged to the Raja of Berar, who in 1826 ruled over a territory considerably larger than England and Wales. The Maratha Government had done nothing for popular education in these territories. Each noble Hindu house had its own Brahman tutor; the few wealthy Muhammadan families and soldiers of fortune maintained maulavis to instruct their children; village schools of a humble type and in small numbers also existed. But neither the Maratha Government nor its subjects recognised any duty on the part of the State to educate the people. With the establishment of order by the British in the newly acquired Sagar and Narbada territories, philanthropists began their work, and at their own cost established schools after an English model. Such schools were opened in Sagar in 1827, and in 1830 the Government of India gave a grant for their support. Besides these schools at Sagar, others were also opened in the towns of Hoshangabad and Jabalpur. The school at Hoshangabad did not flourish and was closed in 1841. The Jabalpur school was made over in 1851 by its Managing Committee to the English Church Mission, by whom it has since been maintained with a grant-in-aid from 1862.

40. Central Provinces: Indigenous Schools*—In 1843, the Sagar and Narbada territories were transferred to the Government at Agra. Mr/Thomason made minute enquiries regarding the state of education previous to enacting that scheme of primary education with which his name will ever be associated. He found 48 Persian and Arabic schools, of which 20 were of less than one year's standing. Nine of the 48 so-called schools taught gratuitously, and the average number of scholars in each was less than nine. Besides these Persian schools there were 231 Hindi and Safekrit schools, with an equally synaH attendance, in one-half of which schools gratuitous education was given. Mr. Thomason proposed to endow a school in every village of a certain size. For its maintenance, from 5 to 10 acres of land were to be set aside, and it was supposed that the schoolmaster, besides receiving the proceeds of this endowment, would receive fees in kind and *money* from his pupils. The scheme, however, was not sanctioned, and eventually the Court of Directors assented to the imposition of a one per cent, school cess.

41 Central Provinces: General Summary—“When, therefore, **the**

Department of Education commenced work in the Sagar and Narbada territories in 1862.

1. Portion of the Central Provinces, which lapsed to Government,

From the death of Raghoji Bhonsla, the situation was altogether different. Under the Bhonslas no Government had given any attention to their capital at Nagpur there were no schools.

There were only 36 pupils; but in the country, education was confined chiefly to the Muhammadans. English education was supplied by the missionaries of the Free Church of Scotland, who were liberally supported by contributions from the Government. Attempts had been made in 1822 by a gentleman to establish schools for the Gonds, but were abandoned on the death of four of the missionaries. Education had made but little progress in the Central Provinces, when on the amalgamation of the Nagpur Districts with the Sagar and Narbada territories in 1862, the present Department was organised for the new Province thus created.

42. Other Provinces: Education prior to 1854.—Of the minor Provinces the Haidarabad Assigned Districts were not made over to English administration until 1853, and Oudh became a British Province only in 1856. They do not therefore find a place in this part of the present Chapter. Assam formed part of Lower Bengal until its constitution into a Chief Commissionership in 1874. The little Province of Coorg, in Southern India, has, however, an educational history of its own. On its annexation to British India in 1834, three Anglo-vernacular schools were founded by Government; and in 1842, the Roman Catholics opened a school at Vicajpet. In 1843, eleven Kanarese schools were also at work; and in the following year, the Rev. Mr. Moegling of the Basel Mission, the first Protestant Missionary in Coorg, offered to take charge of the existing schools, and to open superior ones if furnished, "with funds" by Government. In 1855 he took charge of the Merkara English School, but the attendance fell off, and when the Department of Public Instruction was established in 1857 the state of Education in Coorg was described as very unsatisfactory.

43. Education in India subsequent to 1854: The Despatches of 1854 and 1859.—We have now traced the early efforts of the East India Company towards the education of the people. These efforts differed in regard both to the scale of operations and to the methods employed in the various Provinces. In 1854 the education of the whole people of India was definitely accepted as a State duty; and the Court of Directors laid down with fullness and precision the principles which were to guide the Indian Government in the performance of this great task. Their Despatch of 1854 still forms the Charter of Education in India, and after the East India Company itself disappeared, its principles were confirmed by the Secretary of State in the Despatch of the 7th April 1859. The purport of these two documents may be briefly summarised. The Despatch of 1854 commends to the special attention of the Government of India the improvement and far wider extension of education, both English and vernacular, and prescribes as the means for the attainment of these objects: (1) the constitution of a separate Department of the administration for education; (2) the institution of Universities at the Presidency towns; (3) the establishment of institutions for training teachers for all classes of schools; (4) the maintenance of the existing Government colleges and high schools and the increase of their number when necessary; (5) the establishment of new middle schools; (6) increased attention to vernacular

schools, indigenous or other, for elementary education; and (7) the introduction of a system of grants-in-aid. The attention of Government is specially directed to the importance of placing the means of acquiring useful and practical knowledge within reach of the great mass of the people. The English language is to be the medium of instruction in the higher branches, and the vernacular in the lower. English is to be taught wherever there is a demand for it, but it is not to be substituted for the vernacular languages of the country. The system of grants-in-aid is to be based on the principle of perfect religious neutrality. Aid is to be given (so far as the requirements of each, particular District as compared with other Districts and the funds at the disposal of Government may render it possible) to all schools imparting a good secular education, provided they are under adequate local management and are subject to Government inspection, and provided that fees, however small, are charged in them. Grants are to be for specific objects, and their amount and continuance are to depend on the periodical reports of Government Inspectors. No Government colleges or schools are to be founded where a sufficient number of institutions exist capable, with the aid of Government, of meeting the local demand for education; but new schools and colleges are to be established and temporarily maintained where there is little or no prospect of adequate local effort being made to meet local requirements. The discontinuance of any general system of education entirely provided by Government is anticipated with the gradual advance of the system of grants-in-aid; but the progress of education is not to be checked in the slightest degree by the abandonment of a single school to probable decay. A comprehensive system of scholarships is to be instituted so as to connect lower schools with higher, and higher schools with colleges. Female education is to receive the frank and cordial support of Government. The principal officials in every District are required to aid in the extension of education; and in making appointments to posts in the service of Government, a person who has received a good education is to be preferred to one who has not. Even in lower situations, a man who can read and write is if equally eligible in other respects to be preferred to one who cannot.

The second great Despatch on education, that of 1859, reviews the progress made under the earlier Despatch, which it reiterates and confirms with a single exception as to the course to be adopted for promoting elementary education. While it records with satisfaction that the system of grants-in-aid has been freely accepted by private schools, both English and Anglo-vernacular, it notes that the native community have failed to co-operate with Government in promoting elementary vernacular education. The efforts of educational officers to obtain the necessary local support for the establishment of vernacular schools under the grant-in-aid system are, it points out, likely to create a prejudice against education, to render the Government **unpopular** and even to compromise its dignity. The soliciting of contributions from the people is declared inexpedient, and strong doubts are expressed as to the suitability of the grant-in-aid system as hitherto in force for the supply of vernacular education to the masses of the population. Such vernacular instruction should, it is suggested, be provided by the direct instrumentality of the officers of Government, on the basis of some one of the plans already in operation for the improvement of indigenous schools, or by any modification of those plans which may suit the circumstances of different Provinces. The expediency of imposing a special rate on the land for the provision of elementary education is also commended to the careful consideration of the Government.

Other important Despatches have since been received from the Secretary of State, and have been examined by the Commission with a view to ascertain how far the action of the Department of Public Instruction in India is in

accordance with the orders received. But the Despatches of 1854 and 1859 stand out from all later documents as the fundamental Codes on which Indian education rests.

44. Despatches of **1854** and **1859** considered.—Such is a very brief outline of the main provisions of the orders upon which the educational policy of India during the last twenty-five years has been based, and by which it must in pursuance of our instructions be tested. We shall consider and expand those orders in full detail in the several Chapters of the Report in which each branch, of education is treated. Meanwhile it may be said that the main feature of the Despatches cited, which most distinguishes them from all previous orders on the same subject, is contained in the annexed extract from the Despatch of 1854.

“ It is well that every opportunity should have been given to those (the higher) classes for the acquisition of a liberal European education, the effects of which may be expected slowly to pervade the rest of their fellow-countrymen, and to raise, in the end, the educational tone of the whole country. We are, therefore, far from underrating the importance, or the success, of the efforts which have been made in this direction; but the higher classes are both able and willing, in many cases, to bear a considerable part at least of the cost of their education; and it is abundantly evident that in some parts of India no artificial stimulus is any longer required in order to create a demand for such an education as is conveyed in the Government Anglo-vernacular colleges. We have, by the establishment and support of these colleges, pointed out the manner in which a liberal education is to be obtained, and assisted them to a very considerable extent from the public funds. In addition to this, we are now prepared to give, by sanctioning the establishment of Universities, full development to the highest course of education to which the natives of India, or of any other country, can aspire; and besides, by the division of University degrees and distinctions into different branches, the exertions of highly educated men will be directed, to the studies which are necessary to success in the various active professions of life. We shall, therefore, have done as much as a Government can do to place the benefits of education plainly and practically before the higher classes in India.

“ Our attention should now be directed to a consideration if possible, still more important, and one which has been hitherto, we are bound to admit, too much neglected, namely, how useful and practical knowledge, suited to every station in life, may be best conveyed to the great mass of the people, who are utterly incapable of obtaining any education worthy of the name by their own unaided efforts; and we desire to see the active measures of Government more especially directed, for the future, to this object, for the attainment of which we are ready to sanction a considerable increase of expenditure.⁵⁷”

On the same subject the Despatch of 1859 declared that “ if Government shall have undertaken the responsibility of placing within the reach of the general population the means of simple elementary education, those individuals who require more than this may, as a general rule, be left to exert themselves to procure it with or without the assistance of Government.⁵⁷”

We do not here imply that education for the great mass of the people is the sole object of either Despatch. On the contrary, it is clear from the summary above given, and from the immediate context of the extracts just cited, that schools were to be started for « every condition of life,” including schools of higher education intended for what may be called the higher classes. Still, if any portion of the orders can be pronounced characteristic and distinctive, it is that portion which not only had never been enunciated before, but was

opposed both to the earlier policy and to the reiterated views of the most influential educational agencies then in existence in India. It will be our duty to show how the policy of 1854 has been carried out in each Province; how it was affected by any previous bias or tendency; and by what progressive steps it has arrived at its present development. That policy has been expressly re-affirmed in the orders constituting the Commission, and its re-affirmation at this date is conclusive evidence of the soundness of Lord Dalhousie's appreciation of it when he declared that "it left nothing to be desired* if indeed it does not authorise and direct that more should be done than is within our present grasp." Few declarations of policy have been so comprehensive or have so well stood the searching test of time.

45- Formation of the Education Department in 1855-56—On the publication of the Despatch of 1854, steps were taken to form an Education Department in each of the great territorial divisions of India as then constituted; and before the end of 1856 the new system was fairly at work. The formation of the separate Departments continued over a period of about 12 years, from 1854-55 in the larger Provinces to 1866-67 the Hyderabad Assigned Districts. A Director of Public Instruction was appointed for each Province, with a staff of Inspectors and Deputy or Assistant Inspectors under him. This organisation of control and inspection remains substantially unchanged to the present day, with such modifications and additions as were required by the creation of new territorial divisions, or by the amalgamation of old ones. The Education Department in each Province acts directly under the orders of the Provincial Government, and has developed a system of working more or less distinctively its own. Everywhere it took over the Government or the Board institutions which had grown up under the earlier efforts of the East India Company. We have endeavoured to collect all the statistics* still available of education existing in India when the Department thus came into existence; the figures are not in every case to be relied upon. We shall give a brief history of education in each Province under its separate heads of Primary, secondary and collegiate. We shall summarise the progress of the grant-in-aid system; and we shall conclude with a few general remarks on the policy pursued. We must, however, notice at the outset that throughout this Report British Burma is excluded from our notice. The omission of Ajmer from the statistical Tables and from subsequent Chapters will be presently explained. In addition to these omissions we are precluded by our instructions from dealing with the condition of education in those Native States of India which, unlike the Feudatory States of Bombay* either administer their own systems of public instruction, or else leave education entirely to private effort without any assistance from the State. Our Report is therefore concerned with nine Provinces of India, namely, Madras, Bombay, Bengal, the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, the Punjab, the Central Provinces, Assam, Coorg, and the Hyderabad Assigned Districts, or as the last Province is usually called, Berar. When we speak of India, we refer to these nine Provinces only.

46. The Indian Universities, 1857-1882.—The Resolution appointing the Commission excludes the Universities from the scope of our enquiry; but we shall, both here and in Chapter VI, mention them only in their bearing upon collegiate and higher secondary education. The Despatch of 1854 prescribed the establishment of Universities, and in 1857 the three Universities of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay were incorporated by Acts of the Indian Legislature. The constitution of these bodies was modelled on that of the London University, with

* General Tables A and B of the Statistical Tables at the end of this Report

such modifications as were locally needed. The control of each University was vested in a Senate composed of a Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor and Fellows, the latter being in the first instance partially selected from the previously existing Councils and Boards of Education. The function of these Universities is that of examination, and not of instruction. The latter is conducted by the affiliated colleges and other institutions authorised to send up candidates for the University examinations. While the three elder Indian Universities have been successfully at work during a quarter of a century, a fourth University was established for the Punjab by an Act of the Indian Legislature in 1882. As the University was not established until after March 31st, 1882, the institution now known under that name is treated in this Report and its statistical Appendix as a college. The Punjab University was the result of a movement begun in 1864, and warmly supported by successive Lieutenant-Governors. Among its promoters Dr. Leitner holds a very prominent place. It is mainly an examining body, but exercises a variety of functions for the promotion of literature and education. Its distinguishing features are that it owes its origin to other than State efforts, and that it is designed to give special encouragement to oriental studies.

47* Educational Census of 1881 .—Educational statistics are only intelligible in the light of statistics of area and population. The latter show the extent of the work to be done, and are the best guide to the progress of the future on the basis of the progress in the past. With this view we include in the annexed tabular Statement the area and population of the Provinces with which we are now concerned. It must be borne in mind that these figures comprise a vast variety of countries and races, differing very widely from each other in their nature, character, progress and stage of civilization; and that until these differences are fairly understood, only an imperfect conception can be formed of the full import of the educational statistics that follow. In any case, the magnitude of the scale on which education is attempted in India will be obvious to all. It must also be borne in mind that these educational statistics are derived from the Reports of the Census taken in February 1881, and are therefore much less recent than those given in our Report, from which they differ for this and other reasons. The Census officers necessarily took a wider and more cursory survey than the officers of the Department. The former were instructed to record not only the number of pupils in schools incorporated into the State system, but also those who were receiving instruction in indigenous or other schools in no way connected with the Department. But it is known that several errors have crept into the Census returns, which were collected by a large and generally untrained agency of enumerators who, being unused to the work, were liable to fall into mistakes. Moreover, the Census figures include Europeans and Eurasians, who are excluded from our returns. In Madras, the Census figures include Native States with more than 300,000 ; in Bengal, they include Kuch Behar, Hill Tipperah, and the Chota ^{^a}SP^{ur} Mahals, with more than 1,300,000 persons. Again, in Bombay and elsewhere it is known that a large percentage of children at school were returned not as “under instruction,” but as “able to read and write.”⁵⁵ In Assam it was thought that only those who had attended school on the day of enumeration were to be entered as under instruction, and, as many schools were closed on that day, the Census returns give results far below those shown by the Department. In the Punjab the Deputy Superintendent of Census thinks that wrong returns were intentionally made because a “native woman may be able to read, but it is not fitting that a respectable woman should be able to write,—that accomplishment being reserved for women of light character.”⁵⁵ In other Provinces various reasons are

assigned for the differences which exist between the departmental and the Census returns. With these reservations, we subjoin the following Table:—

Educational Census of India in 1881.

Exclusive of Feudatory or Native States attached to certain Provinces and of British Burma.

pBO VINCI!	irea in square miles.	MALE POPULATION.					FEMALE POPULATION.				
		Total male population.	Under instruction.	Able to read and write, but not under instruction.	PBOOB.TIOS' TO TOTAL aillh POPU-LATION.		Total female population.	Under instruction.	Able to read and write, but not under instruction.	PKOPOOTOBT TO TOTAL JTbKiXB POPTri,Arxaif.	
					Males under instruction.	Males who can read and write, but are not under instruction.				Females under instruction.	Females who can read and write, but are not under instruction.
I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Madras	14,1,001	15,421,043	519,823	1,535,790	r in 30	tin 10	15,749,588	39,104		in 403	1 in 166
British terri- Bombj or. C States.f	124,132 73,753	8,497,718 3,573,355	271,469 83,021	673,895 *266,599	1 »31 1,, 43	1,, 13 1/0 13	7,956,696 3,368,894	18,460 2,733	33,948 5,145	431 «,, 1,333	1,, 244 655
Bengal	193,	34,625,591	1,009,999	1,991,583	1,, 34	* » 17	34,911,270	35,7<50	61,449	in, 976	1,, 56S
North-Western Provi- ces and Oudh—British territory.	106, in	23,912,55<5	399,225	1,033,458	*,, 76	1,, 32	31,195.3*3	9,771	31390	1,,	1 * 9&J
Punjab—British territory	106,63a	10,210,053	157,633	482,129	1,,65	1,, 31	8,640,384	6,101	8,407	1,,M*6	1,,i,028
Central Provinces— Bri- tish territory.	84,445	4,959,435	76»849	157,033	1,,64	25	4,879,356	3,171	4,187	1,,1,539	1,,1,165
Assam . . .	46,341	3,503,703	33,376	79,644	1 « 75	1,, 31	2,377,733	1,068	1,786	1,, 2,326	*,, i,33i
Coorg†	1,583	100,439	4,268	8,839	1>,34	1,, XI	77,853	43*	356	i,, 180	
Haidarabad Assigned Districts.	17,711	1,380,492	37,347	57,827	* » ,SP	1,, 34	1,393,181	356	789		*,,1,638
Ajmir	3.7H	243,844	5,697	34,486	1,,44	1 ^ 1 O	3ri,fi7ff	345	063		*,,
TOTAL	897,608	104,432,229	2,487,697	6,310,273	1 in 42	i in 16	100,(561,146	117,200	231,891	i in 858	1 in 434

* Excluding Aden.
 † Including three Native States which are not assisted by the Department.

Adding British Burma, which was excepted from the enquiries of the Commission, the totals for all India are as follows : Under instruction, males 2,620,913; females 145,523 ; total 2,766,436; able to read and write, but not under instruction, males 6,745,502; females 258,486; total 7,003,988. Comparing these figures with those for the following year, which have been supplied to the Commission from the more accurate departmental returns of native pupils only, we obtain the following results. Excluding Europeans a&d Eurasians and omitting notice of Ajmir, the Department was cognisant of 2,517,629 males and of 126,349 females at school in 1882; the Census officers ascertained that 2,487,697 males and 117,200 females, including Europeans and Eurasians and not omitting Ajmir, were under instruction in 1881. The total expenditure on those branches of education with which our Report deals according to Departmental returns for 1881-82, was Rs. 1,61,10,282 (nominally £\joi 1,028), of which Rs. 60,64,135 were contributed from Provincial revenues, Rs. 26,48,298 from local rates and cesses, Rs- 4,11,449 from Xunieipal funds, Rs. 37,86,006 from fees, and Rs. 32,00,394 from endowment and other sources. Full details as to the methods and objects of this expenditure will be given in Chapter XII-

48. General Educational Eesults in 1881-82—If we compare the figures for 1882 with the best estimates available for 1855, progress made during the 27 years has been very great. The highest total recorded for 1855, including estimates for indigenous schools, is above 50,000 schools, with 925,000 scholars, for all India. This total includes 500,000 pupils estimated — as

attending the indigenous schools of Bengal alone, in 1881-82 the departmental returns for all classes of institutions, including those for Europeans and Eurasians and for special instruction, show 112,632 schools and 2,665,636 pupils; or including Ajmir and British Burma 116,048 schools with 2,760,086 pupils: while the Census officers show that there were 2,520,143 pupils under instruction at the beginning of the calendar year 1881, in the British districts of India, exclusive of Burma; or 2,766,436, including British Burma. It should be remembered, however, that the returns for 1881-82 are far more complete and trustworthy than those for 1855. The number under instruction, together with those able to read and write but no longer under instruction, exceeds *of* millions for British India (including British Burma) out of a population of 208½ millions. But if we compare the present state of education in India with the actual requirements of the people, the result is less satisfactory. It is difficult to estimate exactly what those requirements are. In European countries, it is usual to take the children of school-going age at one-sixth of the entire population, so that, in round numbers, one child should be at school for every six persons of the population. It would, however, be misleading to apply the same ratio to an oriental country, where the great bulk of the population, estimated at 65% of the whole, is agricultural. Moreover, the poverty of the country must form an important consideration. Not only is the duration of the school-going age necessarily shorter than in Europe, but, as a matter of fact, millions of peasant families depend on the labour of their children in order to raise sufficient food to keep them alive during the year. The ratio of one child at school to each six persons of the population implies a standard of comfort and civilization unknown in India. Again, education in most European countries is compulsory by law; but having regard to the poverty and actual educational requirements of the great bulk of the population of India, the Commission declined even to enter into the question of a compulsory Education Act, which must at least be preceded by the provision of adequate school accommodation. We have adopted 15 per cent, as on the whole affording the best estimate of the children of school-going age. But whatever proportion may be adopted, it is certain that a vast unoccupied area exists for further educational efforts, especially in the direction of primary instruction. The average throughout British India (exclusive of British Burma) according to the Census of 1881 is one male under instruction to 42 of the whole male population, and one female to 858 of the whole female population. The great differences shown to exist in different Provinces clearly prove the possibility of extension. Taking the departmental returns for 1881-82 and comparing the pupils at school with the population of school-going age, we find that Madras, the oldest of the great British Provinces, shows a ratio of 17-78 for boys and of 1-48 for girls under instruction; while Bombay heads the list with 22-91 and 1-59 per cent, for boys and girls respectively. The ratios in Bengal are respectively 20-82 and -80 as against 8-25 and -28 in the adjoining territories of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. In considering the returns for the last-mentioned Provinces, which are the least satisfactory in

* India, it must be borne in mind that Oudh was annexed in 1856, and if taken separately from the North-Western Provinces, to which it was attached in 1877, the proportion for the latter would be improved. In the most recent addition to the Empire, the Central Provinces, the ratio for boys is 10-49 per cent, of the school-going population and -44 for girls; while in Assam the ratios are respectively 14-61 and -46 per cent. For the nine Provinces of India with which our Report deals, the average ratio which boys and girls under instruction bear to the population of school-going age is 16-28 and -84 respectively. The Punjab does not reach that average, showing 12-11 of the male population of school-going age under instruction and -72 of the female population.

These figures* are enough to show that a large extension of primary education throughout India is practicable and desirable, and we may add that this extension demands a further expenditure of public funds. At the same time we do not overlook the necessary limitations to increased expenditure which are imposed by the poverty of India. It has been estimated by the best authorities that the average annual income in India per head is Rs. 27, which is very small even as compared with that of the poorest European countries. The average income of each person in Great Britain and in France was found in 1880 to be £33 and £23 respectively. In Portugal it was £5 and in Turkey £4. Moreover, the whole amount of taxation actually paid by British subjects in India amounts annually to about 40 millions sterling, and varies from an incidence of Rs. 3-2 in Bombay to Rs. 1-6 in the Central Provinces. These figures should be borne in mind in estimating the practicability of educational as of other administrative reforms. We now proceed to consider each Province in detail.

49. Madras: Education from 1855-56 to 1881-82—When the Department began its work in the Southern Presidency it inherited very few Government institutions. But the field of education was already occupied by two agencies of considerable importance. The missionary societies in the Presidency, in Coorg, and in the adjoining Native States had organised 16 secondary schools which were at once placed on the aided list, while 27 similar institutions remained unconnected with the Department. In primary missionary schools which received no aid there were nearly 33,000 children, while in the Government primary institutions at the close of its first year the Department was educating only 2,093 pupils. Besides these results of missionary effort, the indigenous schools in the Presidency were educating 161,687 children, and native enterprise had already created 12 secondary schools, of which 9 were placed on the aided list. Thus at the outset the Madras Department found a scheme of education already fostered by independent effort, which merely awaited judicious encouragement; and it left the Department under less obligation than existed elsewhere to create schools of its own, or to stimulate a demand for education.

50. Madras: Primary Education.—Partly in consequence of too exclusive attention to higher education, and partly from the want of adequate funds, the duty of diffusing primary education amongst the masses was neglected by Government until 1868. Yet there was abundant material upon which the Department could have immediately begun work, not merely in the indigenous schools of the country, but also in the well-organised institutions which were maintained by private effort, chiefly by the Missionaries. In the year 1868 the new scheme for "result grants" came into force; and in the same year the Government of India called the attention of the Madras Government to the need of providing from local rates the means of extending elementary instruction amongst the agriculturists. In 1871 the Towns Improvement Act was passed, which gave municipalities power to expend a part of their income upon education; and it was followed by the Local Punds Act of the same year, imposing a local cess from which the ways and means of primary education have been chiefly drawn. Private effort responded at once to the offer of assistance held out to it by the Grant-in-aid Code, and before the Education Funds Act of 1871 became law, the direction which primary education in Madras was thenceforward to take was practically determined. Including the primary classes attached to secondary schools, there were in 1870-71, about

* See General Table 2a at the end of the Report.

89,700 children in schools recognised by the Department, and of these only a small fraction were in Government schools. As soon as the necessary funds were provided from local rates, the schools increased with regular and rapid progress, and in 1882 there were 360,643 children in primary schools maintained, aided, or inspected by the State. Of the schools thus incorporated into the State system only 8 per cent, were departmental schools, 51 per cent, were aided, and the rest were under inspection. It will thus be seen that in Madras preference has been given to private enterprise, and that the work of the Department has been one of adoption of existing institutions rather than one of direct creation by the instrumentality of Government. But great attention has been paid to training the teachers and to improving the method of the indigenous schools brought into the system. Training schools for male teachers have been systematically maintained. Although the provision of scholarships to enable promising boys to proceed to secondary schools has been inadequate, and the grants-in-aid have not in all cases been sufficiently liberal, still the records of examination, as well as the increasing proportion of trained teachers, prove that the results which have been obtained since 1868 are not only numerically great but satisfactory in quality. The policy followed by the Department has created as well as incorporated private schools; and already, according to the departmental returns, Madras follows closely upon Bombay and Bengal in the proportion of its male population who are under instruction in the schools recognised by the Department, while the Census returns show that in the proportion of its population who are "instructed" it stands first among the Provinces. The proportion of local fund income now devoted to primary education is, however, less than was anticipated when Act IV of 1871 was passed.

51. Madras: Secondary Education, 1855 to 1882—In Madras the Department found itself the heir to thirty years of educational effort, the result for the most part of missionary zeal. The Government schools of secondary education were only three in 1854-55,—the high school of Madras, and the Provincial schools of Bajamahendri and Cuddalore. Missionary schools of all classes numbered about 700, and of these between 40 and 50 were what would now be called secondary schools. The three schools established under the Pachaiyappa trust were also giving a high class education to about 1,000 pupils. On the formation of the Department in 1855-56, the Madras high school, which had long been doing the work of a college, received the higher title. Provincial schools, intended to be raised in future years to the same rank, were established by the Department in four important towns; as were also seven schools of the middle class giving instruction, more or less elementary, in English. The first grant-in-aid rules were published in 1855, and every disposition was shown by the Department to give fair play to schools under private managers, which (as the official records of the time show) were intended ultimately to supersede those managed directly by the Department. The result of action conducted in this liberal spirit was that, by 1870-71, the number of grant-in-aid institutions for secondary education had risen to 40 high and 523 middle schools (including one high and 90 middle schools for girls). Together they educated 18,893 pupils, excluding the attendance in primary classes. At the same date the departmental system showed 14 high and 67 middle schools for boys, educating 3,233 pupils in all classes above the primary. The expenditure on departmental institutions of all grades rose from Rs. 95,704 in 1855-56 to Rs. 2,13,472 in 1870-71. The expenditure on grants-in-aid rose within the same period from Rs. 11,105 to Rs. 3,35,395. The standard of education advanced at a corresponding rate. Out of 21 Districts (exclusive of the ibeadaney), 13 had in 1870-71 been provided with

Government high schools; while 39 schools of the same class had also been established under private managers. Every District but one had its high school whether Government or aided; and, in three towns Government and aided schools worked side by side. The period from 1870-71 to 1881-82 is marked by an important change of policy, the general character of which will be gathered from the fact that the number of Government schools rose within this period from 81 to 159, while that of aided schools fell from 527 to 271. The loss was confined to middle schools, chiefly for boys, receiving grants-in-aid. The number of aided middle schools for girls also fell from 83 to 18, while the Department itself established one high and three middle schools of the same class. Much of this heavy loss is no doubt to be explained by greater accuracy of classification; but the revision of the grant-in-aid rules contributed in no slight degree to the result, by reducing the rates of aid to secondary schools and making the rules more stringent. The expenditure on grants-in-aid to secondary schools fell between 1870-71 and 1881-82 from Es. 2,37,000 to Rs. 77,000. This decrease is due partly to the reclassification of a number of middle as primary schools, partly to the separation of the primary departments of middle schools with corresponding separation of expenditure, and partly to the exclusion at the latter date of schools for Europeans and Eurasians. The reductions, however large, cannot therefore be precisely determined; but some indication of their extent may be afforded by the fact that the number of unaided secondary schools returned for 1881-82 was 334, with 4,929 pupils. The expenditure from public funds in 1881-82 on 23 high and 136 middle schools, managed by the Department and educating in all 6,288 pupils, was Rs. 1,14,188; while the expenditure from the same sources on 48 high and 223 middle schools receiving grants-in-aid and educating together 13,072 pupils, was Rs. 77,617.

52. Madras Collegiate Education.—Though in the matter of collegiate education this Province has since advanced with rapid strides, it was not until 1837 that it had any institutions which could properly be called colleges. Here, therefore, collegiate education did not pass through the oriental stage which in Bengal, Bombay, and the North-Western Provinces was preliminary to the present development; and this circumstance was perhaps favourable rather than unfavourable to ultimate progress. For many years after the incorporation of the University in 1857, students were allowed to appear for the high school examinations without any certificate of having attended an affiliated institution. Thus the line between high schools and colleges was by no means sharply drawn. An institution which sent up candidates for the P. A. Examination one year might send no others for several years afterwards. But so late as 1868 there were not more than five or six institutions that could properly be called colleges; and the number of students attending them did not probably exceed 200. In 1871 the colleges, excluding one for Europeans and Eurasians, were 5 in number with about 420 students. Of these, 5 were Government colleges and 6 under private managers. By 1881 the number of colleges had doubled, and the number of students nearly quadrupled. Of the 34 colleges under private managers, 11 received grants-in-aid, while 3 were unaided.

53. Madras: Female Education.—The total number of girls at school when the Department was formed was nearly 8,000, of whom the greater portion were in missionary schools. The Despatch of 1854 led to increased efforts on the part of the State, which chiefly took the form of aiding private enterprise as in the case of primary schools for boys. Still, departmental agency was not entirely neglected. In 1870-71 more than 14,000 girls, including

Eurasians and Europeans, were under instruction. But even so, only '09 per cent, of the female population were at schools known to the Department. By 1881-82, the percentage had increased to '22. The number was then **34,590** ^ whom 11,660 were in aided primary schools for girls, and more than 14,000 in mixed schools. In secondary schools there were less than 400 girls under instruction, of whom only 26 were in Government institutions. There were 4 Normal schools for training mistresses, of which only one with 20 pupils was maintained by Government. Considerable progress has therefore been made, but the expenditure from public funds on this branch of education is comparatively small, and increased liberality is required to place female education on a sufficiently wide and sound basis.

54. Madras: Grants-in-aid.—Madras was the Province in which the Despatch of 1854 anticipated that the grant-in-aid system would be most successful; and considering the large amount of private educational enterprise already in existence, the anticipation was not unreasonable. It was not, however, fulfilled at once, and for a time seemed little likely to be fulfilled at all. This would seem to have been due in part to the fact that the first step taken by the Department on its constitution was to open high schools in important towns not yet provided with such institutions, but in which with liberal aid native private effort might have been expected to establish them. The opening of Government high schools seems to have led to the idea that the inhabitants of places unprovided with the means of advanced instruction should look for the supply of their educational wants to Government rather than to themselves; and for some time but little readiness was shown by the managers of private schools to co-operate with the State. Persevering attempts were, however, made to modify the grant-in-aid rules in such a manner as to encourage private managers, and in 1865 a Code was published under which rapid progress was at last made. This Code was completed in 1868 by the revision of the portion of it which applied the system of payment by results to elementary schools; and the number of pupils educated by aided private effort has gone on increasing, from 23,000 in 1865, and 51,000 in 1868, to 218,000 in 1881-82. Private effort received indeed a great and sudden check in 1878, to which fuller reference will be made in Chapter YHI; and from this it has not yet recovered so far as secondary education is concerned. But in spite of this and of the great delay at first, remarkable progress has been made by aided institutions of all kinds. In the highly important matter of self-support the aided institutions of Madras stand far above any other class of institutions, whether departmental or non-departmental, in every Province except Bengal.

55. Madras: General Summary.—The following tabular Statement exhibits the progress of education from the formation of the Department to March 31, 1882. It shows how the unaided institutions have been gradually transferred from the outer circle of independent educational activity to the inner circle of departmental control and supervision. It also shows that the progress made during the past ten years in Madras has upon the whole been remarkable. The increase has been due, not only to the successful efforts of the Department but also to a largely increased demand for education among the people themselves. In spite of the checks which the grant-in-aid principle has received during the past five years, the number of private schools, both aided and unaided, has largely increased. But in the matter of advanced education the claims of private effort have not received the attention which they deserved. Female education also requires a larger share of public funds; and the provision made from local rates for the education of the masses is still inadequate.

CHAP. II.] HISTORICAL REVIEW OF EDUCATION IN INDIA.

Estimate of the extent of Education in Madras in the first departmental year, 1855-56 and its subsequent growth.

Natak b or thb M-AiirTAiariTG Agkhes,	AHTS COHEGIS, ENGLISH AITD OBIXNTAL.		PBOPBBIOKAL SCHOOLS, OTHER THAN Nov. UA Schools.		SXCOKDAKT Scaool-3.		PaiJTAET SCHOOLS.		I>T)(GÉ3ro)8 SCHOOLS.		NoRJA I SCHOOLS AITD CLASSES.		TOTL.
	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	
f Departmental		302	5	494		1,631	83	2,093	...		21	101	4,538
1855-56 . Aided and Inspected	25	2,107	35	2,107
Extra-Departmental	30	3,687	1,112	33,843	12,498	161,687	198,337
TOTAL,	1	303	5	491	66	7,419	1,195	34,936	12,498	161,687	1	21	204,566
f Departmental	5	388	4	527	81	3,330	98	5,463	9	197	10,633
1870-71 . Aided and Inspected	6	130	563	18,893	3,35*	84,239	7	79*	104,533
C Extra-Departmental	149,003
TOTAL	11	418	4	537	644	32,126	3,450	89,702	16	...	163,866
f Departmental	11	780	*[9	6*9]	159	6,288	1,1*1	4<5,975	a?	662	1,460
1881-82 . Aided and Inspected	14	927	*[3	138]	608	18,001	3,323	313,668	6	394	3,848
(Extra-Departmental	3,828	54,064	3,818	54,664
TOTAL	25	1,707	*[12	767]	764	24,289	4,486	360,643	2,828	54,064	33	956	4,136

* Unattached professional schools, and not included in the grand total.
 o. Including the pupils of attached primary schools.
 c. Including ditto ditto ditto.
 t. Statistics included under Primary schools if aided, and if unaided included in total.
 t. European and Eurasian schools are excluded from the figures for 1881-83 and as far as possible to the two earlier years.
 £ Including the pupils of attached Practising-schools.

56. Bombay: Education from 1855-56 to 1881-82.—The Department in Bombay succeeded to the labours of the Board of Directors, Mr. C. Erskine, C.S., mapped out its future policy and followed him here built up the present system upon the he laid. The missionary societies had* already made some provision for the people, and were educating nearly 7,000 pupils of various orders in secondary schools. These results, though not insignificant, were small in comparison with those recorded in Madras. Native enterprise was also taking a part in the work, but its efforts were represented by only 19 secondary and 84 primary schools in the whole Presidency. Indigenous schools were more numerous and were attended by about 70,500 pupils, but their method of instruction was declared to be very inefficient; and while in Madras there were 198,217 pupils outside the Department in its first year, there were in Bombay 80,846 such pupils. The work which the Department set before itself, after a careful census, was one of creation rather than of incorporation

57. Bombay: Primary Education.—Before the Department was created, the claims of the masses in Bombay had been admitted in more than theory ; but owing to the belief that the indigenous schools were inadequate, the primary system in Bombay has been built up from the very foundation almost entirely on the departmental foundation aided by the direct instrumentality of Government, in accordance with one of the principles recommended in the Despatch of 1859. At present less than 5 per cent of the schools brought within the system are aided, The control and supervision of the schools are entrusted to local boards with school committees under them; but the Department exercises great influence through the Inspector, who is *ex-officio* a member of the boards. The numerous Native States, with a population of 6,728,950 persons, and covering more than a third of the whole area of the Presidency, have also voluntarily adopted the departmental system and placed their schools under the inspection of the educational officers. Local rates levied on the land were introduced into the British Districts in 1864; but were not placed on a legal

basis until 1865 in Sind, nor until 1869 in the rest of the Presidency. In 1871 there were 159,628 children in primary schools recognised by the State. In 1881-82 the numbers had risen to nearly 333,000; and the percentage of boys in primary schools to the total male population was then larger than in any other Province of India with which our Report deals, being slightly in excess of the proportion in Bengal when the primary departments of secondary schools in that Province are excluded. Particular attention is paid to the efficiency of primary schools, to the training of teachers, especially of school-mistresses, and to the provision of good school accommodation and apparatus. On the other hand, the indigenous schools still remain almost entirely outside the pale of the Department, and the encouragement offered to private enterprise is inadequate. The proportion of public funds devoted to primary education is the largest* in India.

58. Bombay: Secondary Education.—The Department began its operations with 23 high and middle schools under its own control, including 7 in Native States, and with 7 aided and inspected schools under native management, educating together 3,578 pupils. There were also several missionary schools, to which the Local Government long hesitated to extend any help. By 1870-71 the number of Government schools had risen to 147, including 10 high schools, with 9,045 pupils excluding the primary classes. The grant-in-aid system was sanctioned in 1864, but not brought into operation until 1866. Under it missionary institutions were for the first time admitted to aid. The system was declared to be suitable only for schools of secondary instruction, and its application was mainly confined to institutions of that class. But the people at large manifested hardly any interest in its success; and in 1870-71, after it had been in operation seven years, there were no more than 23 aided secondary schools for natives of India, of which the majority were under missionary management. Between 1870-71 and 1881-82 the number of Government schools remained stationary at 147, but high schools of this class increased from 10 to 19; while aided secondary schools rose from 23 to 53. The state of the provincial finances in 1875 led to a temporary reduction, which has since been made good, in the allotment for result-grants. In 1870-71 there were 3 middle schools for girls receiving grants-in-aid; in 1881-82 the number had risen to 9. The expenditure from public funds in 1881-82 upon 147 Government schools (19 high and 128 middle), educating 11,170 pupils, was Rs. 2,19,657; the expenditure upon 53 aided schools (14 high and 39 middle) with 5,561 pupils was Rs. 59,642. There were also 66 unaided schools (15 high and 51 middle) educating 6,527 pupils, the majority of these being schools maintained by Native States.

59. Bombay: Collegiate Education.—The two first grade Arts colleges at Bombay and Poona were affiliated to the University in 1860, a third in 1861, and three more between 1869 and 1881. In 1881-82 three of the colleges were Government, two were aided, and one was an unaided college in the Kohlapur State. Between 1860-61 and 1870-71, 244 students had passed the F.A., 116 the B.Jl, and 28 the M.A. examinations. During the next eleven years the successful candidates at these three stages were respectively 709, 340, and 34.

60* Bombay: Female Education.—The Despatch of 1854 found the ground partially occupied by missionary bodies, and to some extent in Poona and in Ahmedabad by native effort. In the city of Bombay the natives had already organised a number of girls' schools which were independent of Government. The number of girls at schools known to the Department in 1854

* See General Table 3d at the end of the Report.

was rather more than 4,000, or about half the number at that time in Madras. The statistics for 1870-71 showed 9,190 pupils in girls' schools, chiefly departmental institutions. From that date the Bombay Government adopted a more systematic and liberal policy towards female education. In 1881-82, there were nearly 27,000 girls in schools recognised by the State; and the percentage of the female population in schools known to the Department, though small, was higher than in any other Province of India. The great bulk of the pupils were attending either Government schools in British territory or schools of a similar character in Native States. No secondary school for girls was maintained by the Department, but there were 555 pupils in the aided schools of this class. On the other hand, the Department maintained two female Normal schools. In no other Province is a larger assignment made from public funds to female education, but greater encouragement of private enterprise is still required.

61. Bombay: Grants-in-aid.—Bombay is one of the Provinces in which it was important that private effort should be induced, at the outset, to co-operate with the State, and where it might have been expected to do so. Though the number of institutions under private management which existed in 1854 was far less considerable than the number of those which then existed either in Madras or in Bengal, still there were in that year about 230 schools with 14,000 pupils under missionary and other private managers. The indigenous schools, though much less numerous than in Madras, were estimated at 2,300 with 70,500 pupils. In this condition of affairs, the Department began to supply the educational wants of the population by originating schools under departmental management instead of incorporating the existing schools and stimulating the development of private enterprise. Until 1863- no steps had been taken to elicit private effort, and even then the rules proposed were not acceptable to missionary and other school managers. In 1865 a more liberal scheme for grants-in-aid was introduced. But in the meanwhile the departmental system had become so completely established in public favour, that private enterprise was placed under difficulties and found the most suitable ground already occupied. In Chapter VIII we shall consider the advantages and disadvantages of the grant-in-aid system which prevails in Bombay of payments by results. It is only necessary to observe here that, notwithstanding the difficulties referred to and the temporary check given in 1876, private enterprise has proved its vitality and done good service especially in higher education. In 1881-82 about 27 per cent, of the native pupils attending colleges and secondary schools were in aided institutions, to which the aid given from public funds was 19 per cent, of the net cost to the State of the corresponding departmental institutions. There is therefore every reason to hope that private enterprise, especially under native agencies, will be largely developed, if liberal aid is given and more systematic encouragement afforded.

62. Bombay: General Summary.—The *moving* tabular Statement exhibits the progress of education from the first year of departmental effort down to 1881-82. It shows, in marked contrast to Madras, the small vitality of extra-departmental institutions; but it also shows a large development and improvement of primary education, and steady progress in higher education. The increase of primary scholars was checked by the famine in 1877-79, but the losses were soon recovered, and the progress of earlier years was resumed. The Bombay educational system is in full accordance with the instructions contained in the Despatches so far as regards the large proportion of funds assigned and the attention devoted to primary education. Complaints have, however, been justly made that an excessive share of the Provincial assignment has been given to schools in towns, to the

disadvantage of the payers of the rural cess. But although the whole primary system for male as well as for female education is well organised, it rests too exclusively on the direct instrumentality of Government. We have elsewhere recommended that the indigenous schools should be incorporated into the system, as was proposed by the first Director. Secondary education is economically and efficiently managed, although the number of schools is small as compared with the number of scholars. But the principles of the grant-in-aid system have not received full attention, and in this respect the Department took at the outset a direction which was not that indicated by the Despatch of 1854.

Estimate of the extent of Education in Bombay in the first departmental year, 1855-56; and %ts subsequent growth.

Nasum of rat UAJrTAn'n& AKIHOT.	ARTS COLLEGES, EJEUSH AIFD OBISUTAX.		PROFESSORIAL SCHOOLS, OTHER IHALIT NOBHAL SCHOOLS.		SECUBUAYE SCHOOLS.		PIUCABT SCHOOLS.		INDIGENOUS SCHOOLS.		NOBMAL SCHOOLS.		TOTAL.	
	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.
f Departmental.	3	103	7	31	23	3,183	220	17,669	5	76	257	21,342
1855-56 < Aided and Inspected.	...	in	7	395	36	3,342	43	2,737
(. Extra-Departmental.	Mt	13	2,032	176	9,425	2,387	70,514	2,575	81,961
TOTAL -	2	103	7	31	42	5,600	432	29,436	2,387	70,514	5	76	2,875	106,040
f Departmental.	3	250	4	399	147	8,045	2,307	129,653	9	490	2,470	139,837
1870-71 Aided and Inspected.	2	47	2	213	62	6,482	431	29,975	5	55	502	36,772
V Extra-Departmental.	Schools.	Pupils.	3,168	89,184
TOTAL	5	597	6	612	3,187	187,339	2,927	77,000	9	490	4,514	265,793
f Departmental.	3	311	27	1,061	147	11,170	3,811	243,959	6	433	3,994	258,860
38&1^3 j Aided and Inspected.	3	164	14	360	109	3,715	6	3,000	4,011	78,755	4,028	83,470
V Extra-Departmental.
TOTAL	6	475	37	1,001	266	3,258	5,271	133,140	4,085	82,303	9	553	9,664	437,740

* The numbers enclosed in square brackets are for unattached institutions and are not included in the grand total of this table.
 † These pupils attend primary or secondary schools, as well as technical institutional, and are included in the totals of the former class of schools only.
 ‡ Including attached middle schools.
 § Excluding the pupils in attached primary schools.
 e. Including ditto ditto ditto.

63- Bengal: Education from 1854-55 to 1881-82—The Department received, charge from the Council of Education of 151 institutions with 13,163 pupils, of whom all except 3,279 were attending colleges and secondary schools. The field was, however, largely occupied by native and missionary institutions, which then received no assistance from the State. It was believed that there were half a million of children in Bengal and Assam attending indigenous schools, besides some in primary schools of a better class and others attending primary classes in secondary schools. The Local Government did not for some years fulfil its duty towards primary education; but when at last in 1872 the diffusion of education among the masses was actively taken up, the vast net-work of indigenous schools supplied the basis on which the Department worked.

64- Bengal: Primary Education—In Bengal there had always existed a very large number of indigenous schools. In 1835 Mr. Adam suggested a definite plan of encouraging these institutions, which were even then estimated at

100,000; but for many years after little practical effect was given to his recommendations. As soon as the Department was constituted, it introduced in 1856 the 'circle system,' which had for its immediate aim the improvement of the indigenous schools and masters, under the direction of a competent Pandit who taught the highest classes in a group of three or four schools. "By this means 172 schools had in 1860-61 been brought under improvement. It was then felt that the means adopted were inadequate to the great task, and in 1862 the "Normal school system" was substituted. A full account of this and other systems will be given in Chapter IV; and it is unnecessary here to do more than to state that in 1870-71 some 2,000 village schools, with an average attendance of 28 pupils in each, had been taken in hand and supplied with trained teachers. In 1868 the Government of India had addressed the Governments of Bengal and Madras on the subject of extending primary education and imposing a local rate on the land. But while the Bengal Government accepted the first suggestion, it has not yet adopted the second; and Bengal is now the only Province in which no local rate for education exists. In 1872, however, Sir George Campbell determined to adopt vigorous measures for extending primary education; and under the operation of the decentralisation scheme introduced by Lord Mayo in 1870, he was enabled to allot a liberal grant for that purpose. In 1875 part of Sir George Campbell's scheme was modified, and the extensive provision of training schools which he had made was reduced to small proportions. From the same date grants to indigenous schools began to be distributed under the system of payment by results originally set on foot by Mr. H. L. Harrison in the Midnapur District. The chief characteristics of the Bengal policy have been the wide interest taken in the indigenous schools, and the incorporation of the largest possible number of them within the departmental system; the determination to keep the standard of instruction from advancing too rapidly beyond the traditional methods of indigenous education; and the gradual improvement of the schools by central examinations and by the removal of inefficient teachers. Its defects have been the inadequacy of the aid rendered; the want of funds which in other Provinces are provided by local rates; the general abandonment of training schools or other means of securing a continuous supply of improved teachers; and the insufficiency of the inspecting staff for so vast a network of educational agencies. But the numerical results have been remarkable. In 1870-71, excluding the primary classes of secondary schools, there were only 68,500 pupils in primary schools recognised by the Department, while in 1881-82 there were nearly 900,000. The Department has won the confidence of the indigenous schools, and there is yet an outer circle of them awaiting incorporation into the State system. Still the proportion of public funds—in that term Provincial, local, and Municipal funds—which is spent on primary education is by far the lowest in any Province of India; being 13 per cent less than in the Punjab, and 27 per cent, below Bombay. It must, however, be remembered that this comparison is affected by the absence, as explained, of any local educational cess in Bengal. With additional means the Department will be enabled fully to carry out its policy of improving the system of primary education; and the indigenous schools are so numerous that the extension of the system will offer no practical difficulties.

65. Bengal: Secondary Education.—The secondary schools which the Department, at its first constitution in January 1855, received from the Council of Education were 47 Anglo-vernacular and 26 vernacular schools. As a means of extending education of this class, the grant-in-aid system was accepted with alacrity by the people of Bengal. A small grant of Rs. 30,000 was at first assigned for aiding private institutions; and in little more than a year

the whole of it was taken up by 79 Anglo-vernacular and 140 vernacular schools of all classes. At the very outset, therefore, the aided system had outstripped the **departmental** system in the field of secondary education. In 1863 the number of aided secondary schools had risen to 172 Anglo-vernacular and 251 middle vernacular schools; the departmental schools at the same date being 46 Anglo-vernacular and 175 middle vernacular. Steady progress continued to be made; and by 1871 the requirements of the people for secondary schools had come to be very fairly met. The secondary schools maintained by the Department were at that date 53 high English, 8 middle English, and 209 middle vernacular, educating together 22,552 pupils, at a cost to Government of Rs. 2,79,450; the aided system included 80 high English, 551 middle English, and 769 middle vernacular schools, educating in all 68,593 pupils, at a cost to Government of Rs. 3,30,687. Assam was separated from Bengal in 1874, carrying with it 125 secondary schools, Government and aided, with 6,779 pupils. In subsequent years the progress of secondary education was affected by the temporary reduction of the grant-in-aid assignment first in 1871, and again in 1876 owing to famine and other causes; by the measures taken to prevent the multiplication of inefficient schools; and by the reconstitution of all middle schools on a vernacular basis. The result of these operations was the transfer of many middle English schools to the vernacular class, and the withdrawal of grants from others which had failed to justify the aid afforded them. The comparative progress of the Government and the aided system of secondary education between 1870-71 and 1881-82 will be seen from the following statistics, regard being paid to the separation of Assam, and to the exclusion of European schools from the returns of 1881-82. The secondary schools maintained by the Department decreased from 270 in 1870-71 to 245 in 1881-82; while their pupils increased from 22,552 to 26,910. The expenditure on them from public funds also decreased from Rs. 2,89,486 to Es. 2,53,640. **A**ided secondary schools decreased from 1,400 to 1,370; their pupils increased 68,593 to 83,949; while the expenditure on them from public funds fell from Rs. 3,30,687 to Es. 2,98,506. The total recorded increase in the secondary system of education between 1871 and 1882 is from 1,670 schools with 91,145 pupils to 1,891 schools with 1,39,198 pupils; unaided schools being however excluded from the figures of the former and included in those of the latter year. The increase has been effected with a reduction in the **expenditure** from public funds from Es. 6,20,173 to Es. 5,54,399. It must, however, be remembered that the secondary schools **in** Bengal and Assam **included** at the later as at the earlier date full primary departments, and that a large proportion of the pupils returned for 1881-82 under secondary, would in other Provinces be included under primary education.

66. Bengal : Collegiate Education—The English Arts colleges in 1854-55 were 11 in number, *viz.*, 5 Government and 6 private colleges. In the former there were 192 students; in the latter the number is unknown. By 1862-63 the Government colleges had increased to 8 with 579 students, the private colleges to 7. In 1870-71 the colleges of both kinds were 18 in number. In 1881-82 they were 21, excluding Madrasas, with about 2,740 students, of whom about half were in the Government colleges. The number of students, who in 1881-82 passed the E.A., B.A., and M.A. examinations were respectively 287, 91, and 26, of which totals the Government colleges claimed 71, 59, and 22; the aided and unaided colleges 116, 32 and 4. The Calcutta Madrasa, the earliest of the Indian colleges, still represents in a form the older oriental colleges, and there are 4 **other** institutions at Distant centres in which a similar education is given in Arabic literature; while the Sanskrit College of Calcutta teaches to a high standard in Sanskrit.

67- Bengal: Female Education .—Before the Despatch of 1854 was received in India, the Bethune Girls' School in Calcutta, managed by a committee and intended for the education of girls of the higher classes of society, had obtained considerable reputation. In 1854 there were about 1,000 girls under instruction in schools known to the Department. Sixteen years later there were 274 girls schools receiving aid, with nearly 6,000 pupils. Since 1870-71 some progress has been made, but Bengal is still far behind the Western and Southern Presidencies in the proportion of girls at school to its female population. Less than 3 per cent, of its public educational funds are devoted to female education. Bengal maintains no Government Normal school, but it assists two institutions under private management, attended by 41 pupils. On the other hand, there are more than 1,000 girls in secondary schools (including 840 in primary classes), of whom 300 are in Government institutions. More than half the total number of girls at school are in primary mixed schools. In the Bethune school and in one of the aided institutions there are 9 matriculated students reading for University degrees. The total number of girls at schools known to the Department exceeds 41,000, while the population of Bengal is 35 millions.

68. Bengal: Grants-in-aid.—The large application of the grant-in-aid system to indigenous schools in Bengal has already been explained. In secondary instruction the Government has liberally aided popular effort from the first, and with one temporary exception, in 1871, has continued to manifest an unflinching interest in its maintenance. By 1870-71, 631 aided schools were providing secondary instruction through the medium of English, as against 61 English secondary schools directly managed by the Department; while there were 769 middle vernacular aided schools against 209 in the hands of the Department. There were thus 1,400 secondary schools maintained by aided private effort, and only 270 provided by the Department directly. By 1881-82 the separation of Assam had reduced the number of both aided and departmental secondary schools, but the relative proportion of the two classes was practically unchanged. There were then 1,370 aided secondary schools and 245 departmental secondary schools, while the unaided secondary schools, which are also under private management and may be regarded as an indirect result of the grant-in-aid system, numbered 276. The pupils in schools maintained by private effort were about four-fifths of the entire number attending schools for secondary instruction in the Province. With regard to primary instruction the indigenous schools have been brought in vast numbers into connection with the Department, but the many important questions arising out of the application of the system of grants-in-aid will be fully discussed in Chapter IV. In collegiate education much less has been done than in secondary education. The aided colleges of the Province are not half so numerous as in Madras, and their number has not increased for many years. No college has come into existence since the grant-in-aid system was first introduced. Under native management are confined, with a single exception, to Calcutta, and are all unaided. There has been no withdrawal of departmental institutions since 1871, and aided effort has been so fostered that stages below the highest, that by far the largest proportion of the means of education is now and managed by the people for themselves with only aid and supervision from the State. ;

69. Bengal : General Summary.—The following Statement exhibits the progress of education in Bengal ; but it must be remembered that in the first year, as well as in 1870-71, the figures for Assam are included. It must also be noted that for the sake of uniformity the primary departments of secondary schools are shown as primary schools. The most striking feature in the Table is

the contrast between the unaided schools, chiefly primary, in 1870-7* and in 1881-82. Of the total estimated number of pupils in the Province in 1870-71, namely, 878,401, it was believed that more than 700,000 were in schools outside the departmental system. But in 1881-82, the great bulk of unaided institutions for primary instruction had been incorporated into the general system. The main characteristic of educational progress in Bengal is its ready acceptance of the grant-in-aid principle, which in no other Province of India has received so great a development in all stages of education below collegiate. Within the last decade primary education recognised by the State has advanced with extraordinary rapidity. Much, however, remains to be done before the improvement in its quality corresponds with its numerical advance. The provision of trained teachers is inadequate; and although the Provincial grant to education is larger than in any other Province, still the absence of local rates prevents the Department from affording such pecuniary aid to primary schools as is given in other Provinces. The rapid extension of responsibilities has outstripped the capacity of the Inspectors to exercise adequate supervision over the indigenous schools. The proportion of public funds spent upon higher education, and especially upon departmental colleges, is much larger than in any other Province of India.

Estimate of the extent of Education in Bengal and Assam at the beginning of the first departmental year, 1854-35 = ^{an} subsequent growth.

Naitimi or nr* MAncAnrra& A&swor.	A mrs CoitEGKB. En&L188: iWD OEBITTU..		PBOPMSIOSV AL SCHOOLS OTHEB THAU NQEMAL SCHOOLS.		SBCOJTDHHT SCHOOLS.		Pant A BY SCHOOLS,		ISDI&BTTOUR SOHOOX-S.		NORMAL SCHOOLS JLR-D OIAHRRK.		TOTAL.	
	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.
/ Departmental.	8	931	1	no	73	8,053(1*)	<S9	3,379	151	13,163
15^4 Aided aaSBipected
ISxk&DepartatniJkl	6	?	23	e,oS4(t)	...	8,514	2S*o0	600,000	25,227	84,568
, Tour	14	521	1	no	95	14,907	368	, ir,793	25,000	500,000	35,378	527,731
/ Departmental,	13	1,153	*4	*377	110	io,g@5(i)	317	13, a3(oj	38	1,344	643	28,053
1^70-71. Aided aoi Inspected	S	394	1,400	26,185 (i)	4, <v7	W3,27S(o)	12	397	5,434	140,251
Extra-Departmental	2	24	3 SI	9,977(o)	35,000	700,000	5	96	3S,384	710,097
Tosjo*	30	*S7i	14	i-377	1,670	37,151	4,8r	i3f,46S	3S,000	700,000	45	1,837	41,430	878,401
C Departmental,	18	2,394	[19	1,14fi	245	8,990(A)	373	18,836(o)	16	672	552	30,892
1881-82. H Aided and Inspected	9	1^433	*13	262	...	2S,890(b)	53,396	973,871 (a)	6	376	55,057	1,011,570
(. Extra-Depart mental	4,283	57,305	4,283	57,305
Torn;	27	3,827	...	1,408	1,891	44^880	3,669	903,707	4,283	57,305	22	1,048	59,892	1,099,767

<< Including the pupils in attached primary Schools. * The numbers enclosed in square brackets relate to **naattachod institutionB** (MSxdudn* iitio ditto ditto. t 1* tUSub%.

70. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Education from 1854-55 to 1881-82.—The Education Department in the North-Western Provinces found the system of tahsili and halkabandi schools, described in Chapter IV, in vigorous operation. These schools gradually took the place of the indigenous institutions* said thus supplied the basis for a system of primary instruction through direct Government agency. The halkabandi schools, commenced in 1851-52, had proved their usefulness in certain Districts before the creation of the Department in 1855, and their success determined the future policy in regard to primary education in the North-Western Provinces. That policy was to found departmental primary schools of a better class, rather than to develop indigenous or private institutions. At the end of its first year, the Education Department of the North-Western Provinces found itself in charge

of 897 Government schools of all classes, with 23,688 pupils. Outside these directly departmental institutions, there were said to be about 3,000 schools, with about 29,000 pupils, unaided and uninspected. The result of the first sixteen years of departmental organisation was very largely to increase the number of Government schools, but to do little for the encouragement of aided education. This tendency was still more marked by the end of the next decade, when the pupils in aided institutions had fallen to 19,310, and those in extra-departmental schools had increased to 68,305* But it must be observed that in no Province of India have changes of classification exercised a more disturbing effect upon the statistics, and the annual Reports on Public Instruction present such varieties of treatment and such inconsistencies between the figures given in different parts of the same Report, that we have found great difficulty in tracing the progress of the educational history of the Province.

71. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Primary Education—The North-Western Provinces were the pioneers of the policy of extending primary education amongst the masses, and of providing adequate funds by means of local rates. Mr. Thomason's efforts had received the warm approval of the Court of Directors prior to 1854. His system was to encourage indigenous schools by careful inspection, and to provide model schools at the head-quarters of each tahsil. His successors developed the system of the halkabandi schools, and abandoned the indigenous agency in favour of the direct, instrumentality of the Department. In 1870-71 there were more than 153,000 children at primary schools, of whom all but about 5,000 were in departmental institutions. In 1881-82, the numbers had risen to more than 213,000, of whom about 16,000 were in aided and inspected schools. Of the primary schools recognised by the State 95 per cent, were departmental; and there were *some* 7,120 elementary indigenous schools which received no encouragement or assistance from the State. The Government schools are described as being in their own sphere efficient, and they receive more than half the total amount expended from public funds on education in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. But the Government schools prove attractive to only one class of the community; and with those members of the lower classes of rural society who are both able to spare the services of their children and anxious to give them instruction, the indigenous schools are said to be more popular. The further extension of primary instruction seems to depend on the adoption of the measures which Mr. Thomason suggested, and on the systematic encouragement of indigenous schools. Although the Government of these Provinces was the first to recognise the claims of primary education, yet the percentage of primary pupils in schools recognised by the Department to the whole male population is only *89 per cent. In no other Province of India is the proportion so low. Efforts are therefore clearly needed to place primary education on a wider basis; and the recognition of the indigenous schools, which, despite the competition of the halkabandi schools, have never lost their hold on the people; appears to offer a better prospect of success than exclusive reliance upon departmental institutions.

72. Broviaoes a&d : Secondary Education,—n i%4-55 the means of secondary education in the North-Western Provinces were provided by the schools at Bareilly, Sagar, and Ajmir, in addition to the school departments of the colleges at Benares, Agra, and Delhi. For some years no addition was made to the number of secondary schools. Additional schools were indeed established; but in the large majority little more than elementary instruction in English was given. In Oudh the Education Department was created in 1864, when there were in existence 10 **sala schools. In 1870-71 the Government schools for secondary education**

in the two Provinces comprised 20 high and 35 middle English schools, besides 273 schools, in which instruction to a fairly high standard was given in the vernacular exclusively. A Government high school was not *set up* at the headquarters of each District, because in many cases there already existed, a school which was thought adequate to the needs of the locality. There were at this time 182 English schools for boys and 26 for girls, receiving grants-in-aid. The original grant-in-aid rules of 1858 were modified in a more liberal sense in 1864; and by 1871 the amount awarded in grants to aided schools had reached Rs. 1,80,000. But the majority of these secondary schools were under missionary bodies, and there was comparatively little native enterprise. In 1881-82, the departmental system included 25 high and 42 middle schools teaching English, and 455 middle vernacular schools; the latter class now including about 200 *halkabandi* schools, in which some of the pupils had reached the middle standard. In all they educated 6,489 pupils, at a cost to public funds of Rs. 2,25,548. Aided schools educated 2,686 pupils, at a cost of Rs. 53,442 to public funds. The number of unaided secondary schools of this class was quite insignificant.

73. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Collegiate Education—

Of the 4 colleges which existed in these Provinces at the formation of the Education Department, one, that at Delhi, perished in the Mutiny, and when it was re-established in 1864 it had passed under the Punjab Government. The 3 remaining were affiliated to the Calcutta University shortly after its incorporation; and between 1861-62 and 1870-71 they passed 96 candidates at the F.A., 26 at the B.A., and 5 at the M.A. examinations. Besides the Government colleges, there were 5 aided English colleges, from which, during the same period, 24 candidates had been successful at the F.A., and 3 at the B.A. examinations. Between 1871-72 and 1881-82, the Government and aided colleges varied from 6 to 10; at the end of each of these years there were 9, The total number of students at the end of the period in Government, aided and unaided colleges, excluding oriental departments, was 349; and during the ten years the successful candidates at the University examinations were in the F.A. 365, in the B.A. 130, and in the M.A. 33*

74. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Female Education.--The

efforts of Government officers were from an early date directed to the extension of female education. In 1854-55 there were less than 400 girls at school, and these were all attending missionary institutions. The Mutiny swept away most of the schools which existed before 1857, and the history of female education commenced afresh in 1859. By 1870-71 more than 12,000 girls had been collected in the various institutions, aided or supported by the Department. Three years later the number had increased to 16,500, and then a change of policy interrupted further progress. In 1882 there were about 9,000 girls at schools of whom more than 5,000 were in aided primary schools. In no other Province of India, except Coorg, is the proportion of girls in schools recognised by the Department to the female population and the expenditure so small. But there are 3 aided Normal schools, and it is believed that the indigenous schools which are outside the Department have some girls among their pupils.

75. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Grants-in-aid—In this

Province the grant-in-aid system has met with small success. A good beginning was made; and for some years after 1858, when rules which school managers considered fair, were put in force, it seemed as if private effort would take a highly important place in the work of education. Subsequently its development began to be checked; and from 1871-72, after filling all allowance for

the fact that several schools classed as aided in 1870-71 were really under departmental management, the tendency has on the whole been steadily downward. There has indeed been a considerable increase in the number of students attending aided colleges, and some increase in the number of pupils attending aided primary schools; but at the same time there has been a considerable loss in aided schools of secondary instruction. Still such grants as are given are more liberal in amount than in Madras, Bombay, or Bengal.

76. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: General Summary—The following Statement exhibits the progress of education from the first year of departmental effort to 1881-82. It shows that the indigenous schools have increased, notwithstanding the competition of the Government schools and the absence of encouragement or assistance. It must be observed that *fa-Wili*, and *halkabandi* schools of the higher order, which in 1870-71 were classed exclusively as primary schools, are in 1881-82 shown as secondary, while their primary departments appear as primary schools. As already remarked, changes of classification have rendered it difficult to trace the progress of education in this Province. But notwithstanding the attention given to primary education and the money spent on it, the Government schools have shown but little of that expansion which is to be seen in other Provinces; while the claims of the indigenous schools, so fully recognised by Mr. Thomason, have not received the attention they deserve. Finally, private enterprise has not received due encouragement at any stage.

Estimate of the extent of Education in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh in the first departmental year, 1854-55 / and subsequent growth-

Natum o* ran MiiirpiijriB-ft ABUS ex.	AURA COLLEGE, EVOLISX, IVI OKIBNTAL.		PJBOMBS-NIONAL SOHOHOIS DT2EBB TEAS' NOBICAL SCHOOLS.		SsooiTDiLrr SCHOOLS.		PKKAKT SCHOOLS.		IfsisnrotrB SCHOOLS.		NOJUCAL SCHOOLS AXDCCLASSBS.		Tata.	
	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.
f Departmental	4	1,920a	..	62	4,658	830	17,000	1	100	893	23,681	
1854-55. * < Aided and Inspected	
(Extra-Departmental	13	1,039	7+	3,235	2,938	25,000	3,903	...	
TOTAL	4	1,920	...	75	5,697	904	20,235	3,936	25,000	r	100	3,903	...	
A Departmental	3*	76	2	3*0	88	n,485	4307	fi4&X26e	9	437	4^09	
Aided	6	M54t	...	20S	16,947S	143	5,1260	4	90	36t	...	
VExtra-Departmental	Schools. 33a	Pupils. W50	s. 173	58,837	
TOTAL	9	*,530	3	300	4^978	18^230	7*	58^837	527	0,174	2A424	
^ Departmental	4	S99d	S,485*	18	305	6,105	...	
1S31-82. < Aided and Inspected	5	302	3	89	3f3	...	
Extra-Departmental	68^05	7,127	68,305	
TOTAL	9	...	223j	...	9,235	5,845	213^38	5,127	68^JOS	21	39S	13,595	...	

(a) Including pupils in Delhi College and in attached high and middle schools.
 (b) Including the pupils in attached primary schools.
 (c) TardTiring ditto ditto ditto,
 (c) Ditto ditto collegiateBehoola.
 * Excluding the Ajmir College with 4 pupils.
 t Including secondary classes of tahsili schools, but excluding 37 schools in Ajmir with 2,126 pupil*.
 X TnfrwiHng! the pnpils of attached collegiate schools.
 § The numbers in square brackets relate to unattached institutions, rad are not indnded in the grad total* of this table.

77. **The Punjab: Education from 1856-57 to 1881-82**—No Province of India entered upon the task of diffusing education of the modern type “under greater difficulties or] with less assistance from private enterprise than the Punjab. It is impossible now to state what number of pupils received instruction in the first year of the Department’s history; but it is known that there were only 3 secondary schools and 579 primary schools maintained by Government. The schools maintained by Missionaries were also comparatively few. Indigenous schools existed in very large numbers; but their course of instruction was mainly religious, though it is probable that, as at present, the elements of secular instruction were given in some of them. There were few or no schools of a modern type maintained by native managers. In 1865-66, according to the Report of our Provincial Committee, the number of schools connected with the Department had risen to 2,968 with *102,418 pupils; but during the next five years a large number were closed as being inefficient, and in 1870-71 there were 1,915 schools with 84,816 pupils, of whom 24,556 were in aided schools. At the end of 1881-82, the number of departmental and aided schools was 2,061, with 109,476 pupils. But although this increase had taken place in the departmental schools, it was small as compared with the progress in other parts of India.

78. **The Punjab: Primary Education**—In its earlier years, the Punjab Government accepted the policy of encouraging the education of the masses. The “downward filtration” theory never gained any ascendancy in this part of India. But the Province had difficulties of its own. It was not annexed to the British crown until 1849. The language which was adopted in the Courts of law, and which of late has become almost exclusively the medium of instruction in schools for boys, is not the principal vernacular of the people, there are three large sections of the population, Muhammadans, Hindus, and Sikhs, each with a system of indigenous education so distinct as to require separate treatment, and each claiming with more or less reason to represent the nationality of the Punjab. Following the example of the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab Government soon abandoned attempts to aid the existing indigenous schools, and enlisting the most promising of the teachers as Government servants took their schools under the management of the Department. In the Central and Western Districts of the Punjab the departmental schools were founded upon the basis of the Persian maktab. In the Cis-Sutlej Districts, a large proportion of the schools attended by Hindus at first used the Hindi dialect and character, but of late years its use has been discouraged. Whatever may have been the advantage of this change, one result has certainly been that the vernacular of the schools is not that with which educated persons of the humbler classes are acquainted. In 1859, according to the Report of our Provincial Committee, the number of primary schools for boys recognised by the State was 2,171, and though most of these hardly differed from the indigenous schools which had existed from time immemorial, it is significant that in 1871 the number had fallen to 1,755* In that year there were some 69,500 pupils in the primary schools recognised by the State. In 1881-82 the number had only increased to 102,867. The Hindus and Sikhs attended these schools in larger proportion than the Muhammadans, although the medium of instruction might seem to favour the latter. The percentage of male children in primary schools is only slightly higher than in the North-Western Provinces, being 31 per cent. evidence before the Commission shews that the departmental system of village schools is not generally appreciated by the masses, nor does it offer any reasonable hope of accomplishing the task which the Punjab Government accepted in 1854.

79. **The Punjab: Secondary Education.**—Till 1861 there were in this

Province comparatively few students learning English. But within the next five years fuller encouragement was given to education of this character. The formation of English classes in vernacular schools was assisted by liberal grants, and the belief was widely spread that a knowledge of that language would lead to Government employment. In 1866 the number of pupils studying English was about 13,000. In the five following years greater encouragement was given to vernacular instruction; and the premature learning of English was discouraged. In 1870-71 there were 4 high and 97 middle schools under departmental control with 9,404 pupils. At the same date there were 10 high and 37 middle schools, with 5,408 pupils, receiving grants-in-aid. In the following period, up to 1881-82, the development of secondary education was stimulated by the promise of Government to reserve appointments for those who had passed through the prescribed course of study. In 1881-82 the departmental schools for secondary instruction were 10 high and 53 middle schools giving education in English, and one high and 125 middle schools in which the course was purely vernacular. These together educated 4,974 pupils at a cost to public funds of Es. 1,99,043. The aided system included 12 high and 22 middle English schools for boys and one middle school for girls, in which 994 students were educated at a cost to public funds of Es. 31,569*

80. **The Punjab: Collegiate Education.**—The *Baid College* ceased to exist in 1857, and the building was occupied by troops for many years afterwards. In 1864 Government Colleges were established at Lahore and Delhi. The two colleges continued to exist till 1877, when the college classes of the former were closed, in order that the staff of the latter might be strengthened without further expenditure. In addition to these colleges there was from 1865 to 1869 an aided college maintained at Lahore by the American Mission. Between its affiliation to the Calcutta University in 1864 and its closing in 1877, the Delhi College passed 61 candidates at the P.A., 18 at the B.A., and 4 at the M.A. examinations. During the eighteen years of its existence the Lahore College has passed 84,25, and 7 candidates at the same examinations. The Punjab Oriental College, founded in 1870, differs from other oriental colleges in endeavouring to impart instruction in the higher branches of European knowledge and science through the medium of the vernaculars, while at the same time cultivating the oriental classical languages.

81- **The Punjab: Female Education.**—In the year following the creation of the Department, there were only 300 girls returned as under instruction in schools recognised by the State, Sir R. Montgomery actively interested himself in the cause, and by 1865-66 the number had risen to nearly 20,000 girls in departmental or other schools. Five years later the numbers had increased to less than 12,000, and in 1881-82 they were still further reduced to less than 9,500. Of these 5,350 girls were attending aided primary schools. Many of the best of the existing schools are under the management of Missionaries or Zanaana agencies. The amount, however, is not more than 1 per cent, of public educational funds are spent on these results, which are very small compared either with the population or with the expenditure involved*

82. **The Punjab: Grants-in-aid**—It can hardly be said that the scheme for eliciting private educational enterprise has as yet been tried in the Punjab. Speaking broadly, the only managers who have come forward under the grant-in-aid system are the Missionaries. The rates of aid seem generally liberal; but when only a single class of those interested in education has been induced to cooperate with the State, it is not surprising that private effort has hitherto played a very subordinate part in providing the means of education for the Province.

Still, in 1881-82 there were 35 aided secondary schools with 994 pupils, and 278 aided primary schools with 14,616 pupils. These formed an important addition to the educational system, since aided effort was thus educating¹ about 15 per cent, of the whole number under instruction; but it should be noticed that in 1881-82 private agency was supplying a smaller proportion of the entire amount of education in the Province than it supplied eleven years before. Old schools are aided on a liberal scale, but applications for new or increased grants are rejected on the ground of want of funds.

83. **The Punjab: General Summary.**— The following tabular statement shows the progress of departmental effort from the formation of the Department in 1856-57. There is no Province of India in which the Commission has found so much controversy as in the Punjab. The differences of opinion which prevail are reflected in the evidence and memorials received by us, as well as in the statement attached to the Report of our Provincial Committee. We are far from underrating the special difficulties which surround the questions of the choice of a vernacular language, the course of studies best suited for the various classes of the population* the encouragement of indigenous schools which are strongly religious, or the relations of the University and of Local Boards to the primary and secondary schools. But our enquiries lead us to the conclusion that primary education has not received the development contemplated by the Despatch; that the indigenous schools have been neglected; and that the education of the masses has not received that support from provincial revenues which has been given in other Provinces of India under the orders of 1871. In secondary education the grant-in-aid system has been little more than introduced, and an inadequate provision of funds has checked the growth of aided schools and discouraged native private effort. There has, it is true, been a large increase of expenditure upon departmental schools, but there has been no such proportionate increase in the number of scholars.

Estimate of the extent of Education in the Punjab in the first departmental year, 1856-57; and its subsequent growth.

X A TITS. 3 OF T3TB MIXTTUJTUIG A&HSOX.	ABCB COLLEGE 9. TSWG-rafch Ajn> Oai-EKTL.		PbOT'ESSION.AX SCHOOLE OTBS& THAJT NoMfi SCHOOLS.		SKCOITDA.T? SCHOOLS.		PSIHAHI SCHOOLS.		1 ITIDIBNOTTS Schools, c		NOKIMJI SCHOOLS AND CLASSES.		TOTAL.	
	No.	Papils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Papas.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Papils.
(Departmental 1856-57. < Aided and Inspected.	1	?	3	?	579	?	583	13,304
(Extra-Departmental	3	178	it	523	5,034	30,196	5,038	30,897
TOTAL	1	?	6	178	590	823	5,034	30,196	5,621	44,201
(Departmental *870-71. < Aided.	3	103	toi	9,4040	1,254	50,5476	...	□* >>	3	307	1*36*	60,260
(Extra-Departmental	47	5,408a	490	18*507\$	II	443	7	198	555	34,556
TOTAL	2	103	318	*8,45.3	1,744	<59,054	4,144	50,954	17	476	6,125	139,039
(Departmenta 3881-82. A Aided. ^,	1	M3	*o	368]	...	4,9745	1,549	88, asm	4	347	*>743	93,575
(Extra-Departxamtal	1	122	*[*	413	35	994*	278	14,616a	4	169	318	15,901
TOTAL *	3	235	...	3093	324	5,968	1,827	103,867	6,362	86,023	8	416	8,433	195,499

¹848 are included in the grand totals of this table.

* Exctedrag ditto ditto . ditto

84. **The Central Provinces: Education from 1862-63 to 1881-82.**— The Education Department in these Provinces was created in 1862. From the first it adopted the principle of founding no Government schools where private enterprise either existed or could be created. But the institutions founded by private enterprise were very few. There were seven missionary secondary schools, and the number of indigenous schools was probably less than 700. By various means the Department has succeeded in inducing private agencies to open primary schools, but the largest results have been due to direct departmental effort. The progress made was considerable up to 1870-71; since that date the pupils in Government schools have only slightly increased, while those in aided schools have decreased in a larger proportion.

85. **Central Provinces: Primary Education.**— The Central Provinces Administration found the task of diffusing elementary education beset with difficulties. The bulk of the population are Hindus and aborigines, to the latter of whom education is practically unknown. The Department from the first neglected no agency which could assist in the work of primary education. Local rates supplied the bulk of the funds and efforts were made to encourage the economical agency of private enterprise. But the indigenous schools were even fewer and more inefficient than in Bombay, and the position of school-master was not sought after. In 1870-71 the Department had succeeded in attracting to the primary schools about 76,400 children, of whom 41,400 were in departmental institutions. In 1881-82, the total number in primary schools recognised by the State had only risen to 77,737. The departmental institutions had increased, and formed 66 per cent, of the whole number within the State system. There are few of no indigenous schools outside that system, for the few institutions which do not receive aid are under inspection. Much therefore remains to be done, as the proportion of boys in primary schools to the male population is cent. But if the numerical results are disappointing, the efficient schools is generally satisfactory, and in no other Province of India is the proportion of trained teachers relatively so large. The aboriginal race, without instruction, and in the absence of private enterprise mentality of Government may need to be more largely employed. The proportion of public funds spent on primary education is liberal, but the funds themselves are still very inadequate for the task of extending elementary education in so difficult a field,

86* **Central Provinces: Secondary Education.**— On the formation of the Department in 1862, the only provision for secondary education was supplied by the high school at Jabalpur, and by 3 unaided middle schools. By 1870-71 another high school and 44 Government middle schools had also been established. From its first constitution, the Department had offered aid to efficient Anglo-vernacular schools; and in 1870-71 there were 22 high and 8 middle English schools receiving grants-in-aid. By 1881-82 the Government schools had been reduced to 1 high school and 38 middle, in which 2,100 boys were educated at a cost of Rs. 58,947. The aided system had increased to 4 high and 10 middle schools, receiving altogether Rs. 14,116 from public funds, and educating 671 pupils. There are no unaided secondary schools.

87- **Central Provinces: Collegiate Education.**— In these Provinces there is only one Government college, that at Jabalpur. Though affiliated to the Calcutta University up to the B.A. standard, it has not as yet had a staff sufficiently strong to prepare candidates for that examination. Its students, therefore, after passing the P.A. examination, have hitherto joined one or other of the colleges of Bombay or the North-Western Provinces* when wishing to pro*

ceed to the higher University degrees. The total number on the rolls in 1881-82 in the Jabalpur College was 65, and during the twelve years between 1870-71 and 1881-82 it passed 90 candidates out of 149 at the RA. examination. Besides the Government college an aided college has been established at Nagpur by the Mission of the Free Church of Scotland since the close of the year 1881-82.

88. Central Provinces : Female Education—Early efforts were made to overcome the great difficulties incidental to, female education in the Central Provinces, In 1870-71 there were nearly 4,500 girls attending departmental institutions, and about 230 in aided or inspected schools. There were also 3 Normal schools for female teachers. But in the course of the next decade there was a general falling off. In 1881-82, there were only some 3,200 pupils in schools of all classes, and but one Normal school with 17 pupils, which, although it is a well-managed institution, cannot suffice for the wants of the whole Central Provinces.

89. Central Provinces: Grants-in-aid—The late formation of the Department, which did not commence operations until 1862, gave an opportunity for profiting by the experience gained elsewhere, and there is no Province in which the principles laid down in the Despatch of 1854 have been more fully acted on within a limited sphere. The success of eliciting private effort has not indeed been proportionate to the endeavour, but this may be accounted for by the extremely backward condition of the Province when educational efforts were begun, and the consequently small number of persons willing and able to co-operate with the State. There is, however, reason to hope that if the present policy be continued, aided effort will in due time take the place in the educational system of the Province which the Despatch of 1854 desired it to hold in every Province. The Department has largely confined its direct efforts to primary education, and no departmental institutions of an advanced character have been set up where there has been a reasonable prospect that private effort could with liberal aid be made adequate to local wants. Of the five high schools of the Province only one is departmental. Of the entire number of pupils under instruction, 19,457, or about 24 per cent., were in 1881-82 in aided institutions.

90. Central Provinces: General Summary—The following Table exhibits the growth of education in the Central Provinces between 1862-63 and 1881-82. In estimating the modest results which it exhibits, it is necessary to bear in mind the weakness of private enterprise, the poverty of the administration, and the backward state of society. The schools are comparatively few, but their condition is satisfactory, and the endeavours made to promote the development of aided institutions deserve favourable notice.

Estimate of the extent of Education in the Central Provinces in the first departmental year 1862-63; and its subsequent growth.

Star&xs or TOT Iturcuamre A&urex.	ABTS COLLEGES, EHGJ-ISH AHD OniMTTAlr.		PaoFBSSioiri.li SCHOOLS, QTHRB TEAS NORXIX SCHOOLS.		SECOHDARY SGOHOOLS.		PBXM&XT SOHOOLS.		IirDiewroITS SCHOOLS.		No H MI SCHOOLS.		TOTAL.	
	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	PupilB.	No.	Pupils.
f Departmental . .	—	9	1,238*	409	11,054	4	1M	9	190	427	12,479
1863-63. < Aided and Tnqmbri (Extra-Departmental	7	1,0630	735	7,811	743	8,874
Returns not available.														
TOT XT.	16	2,298	409	11,054	735	7,811	9	190	1,169	21,353

(a) Inrt tdrng the pupils in attached primary schools.

(6) The Provincial Committee regards this number as an exaggerated estimate.

Estimate of the extent of Education in the Central Provinces in the first departmental year, 1862-63 ; and its subsequent growth—(contd.)

Natura of the MAINTAINING AGENCY.	ARTS COLLEGES, ENGLISH AND OTHER TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.		PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS, OTHER TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.		SCHOOL HIGH SCHOOLS.		PRIMARY SCHOOLS.		MIDDLE SCHOOLS.		NORMAL SCHOOLS.		TOTAL.	
	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.
(Departmental .					4<	5,347a	795	41,404b			7	243	848	46,993
*870-71 . < Aided and Inspected \ Extra-Departmental			10	1,411a	1,091	34,995b	1,101	36,406
TCTA-1.		56	6,758	1,886	76,399	7	342	^,949	8JU99
(Departmental .	1	65	24	450	39	3,107a	894	55,745b			4	183	962	58,545
1881-82 . < Aided and Inspected \ Extra-Departmental		...	C*	34]	14	671a	454	21,992a	468	23/>6
TOTAL	1	65	24	450	53	3,772	1,348	77,737	4-	188	1,430	81,112

(a) Including the jfapile in attached primary schools.

(b) Excluding ditto ditto ditto.

* The figures in square brackets relate to unattached technical schools, and are not included in the grand totals of this table.

91. Assam : Education from 1854 to 1882—The educational statistics of Assam were included in those of Bengal up to the year 1874, when the separation of the two Provinces took place. From that date Assam has developed its own system more on the general lines laid down by Sir George Campbell than on those of his successor, Sir H. Temple. The Province consists of three divisions,—the Surma Valley, comprising the Districts of Sylhet and Gachar; the Brahmaputra Valley, containing about half the area and half the population of the entire Province; and the Hill Tracts, which include the wild and sparsely populated Garo, Khasi, Jaintia, and Naga Hills. The chief languages are Assamese, Bengali, and Cachari; but there is also a great variety of hill dialects. In the Surma Valley, schools have flourished from a very early period and are under regular inspection notwithstanding the difficulties in the way of communication especially during the rainy season. Here the indigenous schools, Hindu and Muhammadan, have been largely improved on the Bengal pathshala system, which is said to have been eminently successful in the development of primary education—the Sylhet primary schools being the best in the Province. In the Brahmaputra Valley, where there is much recent reclamation from jungle throughout the older Districts constituted on the Bengal regulation model, indigenous schools hardly existed at all, and the Department found a fresh field for its operations. The Hill Tracts are specially mentioned in the Despatch of 1854, as one of the Districts where education is most indebted to missionary agency; and the administration of the grants-in-aid in those tracts is still in the hands of the different missionary bodies. In these tracts also, owing to the persevering efforts of missionary agency, female education has been more successful than elsewhere in Assam, and the girls' schools have to some extent been provided with trained female teachers who are natives of the country. The net result of all the agencies at work was shewn in 1881-82 to be, in the schools recognised by the Department, 46,750 children, of whom 38,182 were in primary and 331 in Normal schools.

92. Assam: Primary Education—After 1874, the Province persevered in the policy laid down by Sir George Campbell, and maintained its own method of encouraging indigenous schools. This method resembles that of Bengal in

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being built entirely upon private agency, which is as far as possible that of the indigenous schools. But its later development is in marked contrast with that which Sir George Campbell's policy received at the hands of his successors. In the first place, the necessity for training schools has been steadily kept in view. The Inspector of Schools reports to the Commission that "it is much better not to start a primary school at all than to start one with a bad teacher who brings discredit on our system. Until a much larger supply of qualified teachers is available the progress of primary education must be slow." In the second place, the grants given to aided schools are very liberal, and the Inspector writes that "the system of granting aid by payments for results has never been tried in Assam Proper, and except under a modified form would, I believe, result in closing a great many of the bad and struggling primary schools." Lastly, the sanction which the Secretary of State gave in 1870 to the introduction of a local rate for educational purposes in Bengal was given the force of law in 1879, and primary education is now, under Regulation III of that year, wholly supplied by local rates. Great attention is paid to the improvement of schools; and the extension of primary education is only limited by the funds available for the payment of liberal grants to schoolmasters and for the maintenance of training schools for teachers. In 1881-82 the children attending the primary schools recognised by the State formed the same proportion of the male population at school as in the Central Provinces. But unlike the Central Provinces, there is in Assam an outer circle of indigenous schools gradually qualifying for State assistance, and these contain nearly 10,000 children. The percentage alike of public funds and of provincial educational funds devoted to primary education is, however, small.

93. Assam: Secondary Education.-Assam, when separated from Bengal, carried with it 9 high and 116 middle schools, English and vernacular, with 6,779 pupils. A number of middle vernacular schools which had not proved successful were reduced to the lower vernacular stage, with greater promise of efficiency. In 1881-82 the total number of secondary schools had accordingly fallen to 92, but the pupils had increased to 8,177, including the pupils of attached primary departments. The Government system included 9 high, 2 middle English, and 18 middle vernacular schools, educating 3,403 pupils at a cost of Rs. 39,827 to the Government; while under the grant-in-aid rules there were 1 high, 28 middle English, and 25 middle vernacular schools, educating 4,085 pupils at a cost of Rs. 18,833. There were also 1 high and 8 middle schools which, received no grants-in-aid.

94. Assam: Female Education: Special Classes.-Female education has since the separation of Assam from Bengal received considerable attention, and in 1881-82 there were nearly 1,700 girls at schools known to the Department. There is, however, no Normal school for female teachers, though a class for women is attached to the Cherra Punji Normal School. All the institutions for girls are primary schools, which are liberally aided. In Assam the

education of the large aboriginal population is receiving attention. In the Khasi and Jaintia Hills a gratuitous education is given to the children of aborigines, and it is partly paid for by mission funds and partly by the State.

95. Assam: Grants-in-aid.-In Assam encouragement has steadily been given to private enterprise, though, at present, except in the case of primary schools, little progress has been made; but, as already noticed, the rates of aid to primary schools are far more liberal in Assam than in the Lower Provinces.

96* Assam : General Summary.—The following Table affords a sufficient summary of the facts which have been stated above, The statistics of education for 1870-71, cannot be obtained, as the records of many Districts have been destroyed by fire.

Education in Assam in 1881-82.

NATUBB or THB MAINTAINING AGENCY.	PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS		SCHOOL SCHOOLS.		PBIMABT SCHOOLS.		WIDYASWAY SCHOOLS.		NOBMAL SchHooxa.		TOTAX..	
	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	PopulB.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.
/Departmental	X	60	29	3*4038	7	1871	...	««»	<5	220	43	3>870
1881-82. (Aided and Inspected	12]	63	4,7748	1,344	37,995	h...	...	3	III	1,410	42,880	
V Extra-Departmental	497	9,733	497	9,733	
TOTAX	1 ell	60 12]	92	8**77	1,351	38,182	497	9,733	9	331	1,950	56483

(a) Including the Primary Departments of Secondary Schools.

(b) Excluding ditto ditto ditto ditto.

(c) The figures in square brackets relate to unattached technical schools, and are not included in the grand totals of this table.

97. Coorg: Education from 1857 to 1881-1882.—Prior to 1870-71 the returns of some of the educational institutions in Coorg were included in those for Mysore. In that year, there were 1,601 pupils in schools known to the Department, of whom only 108 were in aided primary schools. The Government institutions consisted of one secondary school with 60 pupils and 32 primary schools. In 1881-82, the secondary Government schools had increased to two with 157 pupils, and the primary schools were 57 with 2,978 pupils. The Department provided or assisted in providing education for 3,233 children in schools of all classes and stages. There were only three aided primary schools and 41 indigenous schools receiving no aid from the State.

98. Coorg : Primary Education.—Primary education in Coorg during the seventeen years down to 1860 was represented by 20 village schools maintained by Government, on a monthly allowance to each master of Rs. 2-8. As an educational agency their value was proportionately small. In 1860 it was resolved to put the masters under training, and to give those who qualified Es. 7 a month. The scheme was carried out in 1864. In 1870-71 there were 1,541 children at primary schools, of whom about 108 were in aided schools. The departmental agency has since that date been exclusively developed, and in 1881-82, there were nearly 3,100 children in primary schools* of whom not 100 were in aided institutions. The indigenous schools have about 100 pupils, but they receive no assistance from the State. A local rate was introduced in 1871, and to it is attributed the improvement which has been made in the quality of the schools as well as their increase in numbers. Three per cent, of the male population are at school, which is the highest proportion recorded in any of the Provinces with which our Report deals. A few girls attend the village schools for boys. There is also a school at Virajpet established by the nuns for native converts.

99. Coorg: Secondary Education.—The Merkara Government School was established on the formation of the Department in 1857, and was placed under the charge of the Basel Mission. This was the only secondary school existing in Coorg in 1870-71, when it had 60 pupils. In 1881-82 the high and

middle departments of this school instructed 157 pupils at an annual cost to the State of Us. 7,518. There were no secondary schools under private managers.

100. Coorg: General Summary—The following Table exhibits the growth of education in Coorg since the statistics of its educational history were separated from those of Mysore. Beyond the evidence which these statistics furnish in regard to the little aid rendered to private enterprise, the Table calls for no remark.

Growth of Education in Coorg between 1870-71 and 1881-82.

NITTRB OB TUB MADJTAOTIUG AfikBTCr.	SxCOITDARYPBIHABY SCHOOLS.		ISTDIGBKOUS SCHOOLS.		NOBKAL SCHOOLS.		TOTAL.			
	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.		
/ Departmental .	1	60	32	433	1	34	M93	
1870-71 ^ Aided »	3	108	3	108	
\ Extra-Departmental	
TOTAL	1	60	35	1,541	1	?	37	1,601
/ Departmental .	2	157	57	2,978	x	7	60	3>H2
1881-82./ Aided	3	91	3	...
^ Extra-Departmental	11	41	470	41	470	...
TOTAL	2	157	60	3,069	41	470	1	7	104	3>7<3

101. Haidarabad Assigned Districts: Education from 1866 to 1881-1882—The position of this Province, which is generally known as Berar, is exceptionally favourable to the extension of primary education. The population is prosperous and wealthy, consisting of 90 per cent. Hindus, and the rest Muhammadans and aborigines. The Education Department was organised in 1866, and its main object was declared to be the extension of elementary education. In pursuance of this object a cess of one per cent, on the land-revenue was introduced in 1868, and its proceeds were devoted to the multiplication of cess schools entirely under departmental management. Indigenous schools were few in number and inferior in quality, but an attempt has been made since 1870-71 to bring them within the departmental system. The present Berar system of primary instruction is the result of these two modes of action, no other development of the grant-in-aid agency for vernacular instruction having been found practicable. In 1881-82 the pupils in departmental primary schools had increased to nearly 28,000, and there were about 7,000 pupils in schools either aided or inspected by the Department. The defects of the system are the absence of any attempt to educate the aborigines ; the want of any adequate educational machinery such as school committees and Local Boards; the very marked insufficiency of properly-trained teachers who are natives of the Province; and the absence of aided institutions other than the indigenous schools.

102. Haidarabad Assigned Districts: Secondary Education.—In 1866 two English schools at Akola and Amraoti were raised to the status of

high schools. The bulk of their cost is paid by Government, and a large number of their pupils come from other Provinces. There were also in that year 23 English schools of the middle standard. In 1871 the middle schools had risen to 44, and they subsequently increased to 52; but it was found that their number was in excess of the requirements of the people, and 30 were reduced to the primary class. In 1881-82 the two high schools contained 61 pupils; while in the middle schools, now 29, the number of pupils was 972. The cost of all these schools to the State was Es. 53,197. There were no schools under private management.

103. Haidarabad Assigned Districts: Female Education.—Although liberal funds are available, female education in Berar has been a failure. The Department has relied upon the earlier views expressed by the Government of India, in which a gradual and cautious development was advocated. In 1871 there were 671 girls at schools known to the Department, and in 1881-82 there were only 269 attending Government institutions and 99 in aided institutions. There is no Normal school or class in the Province, and when the state of female education in the adjoining division of the Bombay Presidency is considered, its failure here seems to be due to indifference to the subject. The proportion of the female population at school is only one-half of the proportion at school in the Central Provinces, where the difficulties of finance and administration are far greater.

104. Haidarabad Assigned Districts: General Summary.—The following Statement exhibits the growth of education in these districts since the formation of the Department in 1866. We have summarised the chief features of the Berar system in paragraph 101.

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Estimate of the extent of Education in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts from the first departmental year 1866-67; and its subsequent growth.

NATURE OF THE MAINTAINING AGENCY.	SECONDARY SCHOOLS.		PRIMARY SCHOOLS.		JUNIOR SCHOOLS*		NORMAL SCHOOLS.		TOTAL.	
	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.
Departmental .	25	2,202	122	4,442	—	—	—	—	14	6,644
1866-67 -Aided	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Q Extra-Departmental	—	—	—	—	100	2,000	—	—	100	2,000
TOTAL	25	2,202	122	4,442	100	2,000	—	—	247	8,644
Departmental	46	3,846	297	10,223	—	—	1	64	46	14,133
1870-71 -Aided	110	2,308	no	2,308
(, Extra-Departmental
TOTAL	46	3,846	297	10,223	110	2,308	1	64	454	16,441
Departmental .	3*	1,033 ⁵ j	467	27,844*	1	79	499	28,956
1881-82 . < Aided and Inspected	416	6,884	—	...	416	6,884
^Extra-Departmental	—	—	—
TOTAL	3*	1,033⁵ j	883	34,728	—	—	1	79	9*5	35^40

(a) Including the pupils in attached primary schools.
(A) Excluding the pupils in attached primary schools.

105. Education in Ajmir-Mhairwara—These territories form a Chief-Commissionership under the Foreign Department, the Governor General's Agent for Rajputana being *ex-officio* Chief Commissioner of Ajmir. We regret that the Commission has not been able to visit this outlying Province of British territory. From the Ajmir-Mhairwara Administration Report for 1881-82, we

find that on the 31st March 1882, there were, including the Ajmir Government College, 130 educational institutions at work, with an attendance of 5,400 pupils. In many respects, as in its tahsili and halkabandi schools, the system of education in Ajmir rests on the same basis as in the North-Western Provinces, to which it was formerly attached. Education has made steady progress in Ajmir-Mhairwara ; the number of pupils in Government institutions having more than trebled during the past decade from 1,049 in 1871-72 to 3,391 in 1881-82. The progress, so far as the Department is concerned, has, however, been made almost exclusively by direct Government agency. Only two mission schools, with 238 pupils, receive grants-in-aid, while the returns shew 57 unaided mission schools with 2,009 pupils in 1881-82. The Ajmir College will be again mentioned in Chapter VI; and an account of the Mayo College, founded for sons of nobles in memory of the Earl of Mayo, will be found in Chapter IX of this Report. We regret that we have not been able to include the figures for Ajmir in our statistical Tables, but, where possible, the information available has been included in foot-notes to the Tables. All totals, therefore, in those Statements are subject to an addition of 73 Government and aided schools with 3,391 pupils, and of 57 unaided mission schools with 2,009 pupils ; or a total of 130 schools with 5,400 pupils for Ajmir-Mhairwara.

CHAPTER in.

INDIGENOUS SCHOOLS.

106. Survey of indigenous Education in India.—¹The Despatch of the Court of Directors in 1854 recognised the fact that “ throughout all ages learned “ Hindus and Muhammadans have devoted themselves to teaching with little “ other remuneration than a bare subsistence.” It drew prominent attention to the necessity of fostering in every Province of India the indigenous schools which, it was believed, had existed from time immemorial; and which might by wise encouragement, such as had been given by Mr. Thomason in the North-Western Provinces, be made capable of imparting correct elementary knowledge to the masses of the people. . The Despatch of 1859, whilst noticing the obvious fact that no general scheme of popular education could be framed which would be suitable to all parts of India, re-affirmed the necessity of making the greatest possible use of existing schools, and of the masters to whom, however inefficient as teachers, the people had been accustomed to look up with respect. But it expressed a doubt whether the grant-in-aid system, as up to that time in force, was suited to the supply of vernacular education, and suggested that the means of elementary education should be provided by the direct instrumentality of the officers of Government; either according to some one of the plans in operation in Bengal and the North-Western were based upon or recognised the importance of encouraging indigenous schools; or by any modifications of those schemes which might be adopted in India to the Local Governments., Without attempting to take account of the different religious classes which make up of India, it may be generally affirmed that the indigenous system of education is confined to the Hindus, Muhammadans, and Sikhs. The aboriginal population, numbering, according to the classification adopted in the last census, nearly 6| millions, are sunk in ignorance, and (excepting in rare instances such as the Kamptis) what education they have received they owe entirely to missionary enterprise, or to schools established by the British Government. They have no system of their own, and experience has proved that the indigenous schools are incapable of providing for the education of these backward races. The Buddhist population, numbering 3^ millions, is almost entirely confined to Burma, where the history of education under British rule is mainly a narrative of the improvement of the indigenous monastic schools. These schools have succeeded in giving instruction to almost every male and female in the country, but further reference to them is unnecessary, since Burma is excluded from the Commission’s enquiries. The Christian population of India, numbering 1,862,600, owes its education chiefly to missionary or other disinterested effort aided by State-grants; but its system .is conducted on English principles, and is therefore excluded from a review of indigenous education. The Parsi community, which only numbers 85,400, has won its position in Indian society not only by its commercial enterprise, but also by its recognition of the value of education. This community is, however, chiefly confined to the Bombay Presidency, and it is has borrowed largely in regard to education from European models. It will be noticed when we consider the state of education in that Province. The Hindu community, whose system demands chief attention, numbers 188 millions. The Muhammadans number 50 millions, of whom more

than 23 millions are found in Bengal and Assam, and 1 millions in the Punjab. The Sikh population numbers 1,850,000, of whom more than 1,700,000 are to be found in the Punjab. These three classes of the community, aggregated nearly 240 millions, form 95 per cent, of the entire population of India outside Burma; and it is with their indigenous system of education, so far as it has not been incorporated into the scheme of public instruction organised by the State, that the present Chapter deals.

107. **General Uniformity of the indigenous System**—The diversities of race, character, and history, which have so variously affected the material and moral condition of the nine Provinces with which our Report is concerned, have stamped their educational systems with less variety than might have been expected. A general uniformity of character may be traced throughout the Empire in the several indigenous schools of the Hindus and Muhammadans. The educational organisation is not different, but only less complete and successful, in some parts of India than in others. Where the Government was strong enough to preserve order and maintain the public peace, every large Hindu village possessed a school of its own, and the foundation of a system of national education had, long previous to British rule, been laid by the spontaneous efforts of Hindu and Muhammadan society. Thus in Bengal it is believed that the sustained exertions of the Department of Public Instruction have contributed but little addition to the network of primary schools, which have existed from time immemorial; and there still remains an outer circle of indigenous institutions not greatly inferior to those which have already been absorbed into the State system of primary instruction. On the other hand, it has been contended that the vast armies of banditti, which pillaged the villages of the Deccan and Central India, made the social history of that part of the Empire one long narrative of invasion and anarchy; and that the schoolmaster's occupation shared the fate which overtook other peaceful arts and industries. In 1858, according to a census taken by the Educational Officers and the Orders of Government, no less than 90 per cent, of the villages in the Bombay Presidency were found to be without any indigenous schools whatsoever. Accordingly, the task imposed upon the Department in Bombay was one of creation rather than of adoption, and the poverty of the indigenous system in Western India afforded a marked contrast to its variety and richness in Bengal. Forty years ago, according to an estimate made by the revenue officers, there were only 1,421 indigenous schools in Bombay. There are now 5,338 primary institutions under departmental supervision, and 3,954 indigenous primary unaided schools. Still, Hinduism has preserved with considerable uniformity its distinctive features, notwithstanding the vicissitudes that Hindus have encountered in the various Provinces of India. In short, a Bengal pathshala is only another type of similar institutions in Madras or Bombay. The Muhammadans have also preserved their system intact; and although they are distributed in very small communities outside the three Provinces of Bengal, in the Punjab, and the North-Western Provinces, a mosque-school, or maktab, in Sind differs little from one in Behar. Finally, as regards the Gurmukhi schools of the Sikhs, it has already been observed that the bulk of these democratic-protestants against prevailing creeds are concentrated in the Punjab, where their institutions are naturally moulded in one form. But in the Bombay Presidency, chiefly in Sind, and in the Deccan Hyderabad, small colonies of the same are to be found, who have carried with them their indigenous system, and have jealously preserved the special character of their schools.

108. **Distinctive Features of the indigenous Systems.**—We define an indigenous school as an educational institution established or conducted by

natives of India on native methods. Such institutions are either of an advanced character or purely elementary. The elementary are further divided into the village school and the bazar school. The high class institutions have remained, for the most part, outside the influence of the educational system; the elementary have been largely utilised in building up the departmental system of primary education. Those which have been thus absorbed have altered their method and character more or less according to the pains and the systematic attention bestowed upon them by departmental officers. Their example has indirectly affected others which have remained outside the circle of State supervision. In this part of our Report we are dealing exclusively with those indigenous schools which have not been absorbed or adopted by the Department. Those which have been so incorporated will be considered in the Chapter on primary instruction. With this explanation, it may be accepted as a general rule that some religious character attaches to all indigenous schools of the old type that teach the classical languages of the East* as well as to a large number of ordinary vernacular village-schools. The vernacular indigenous schools which have sprung up in Bombay in response to the demand for primary education stimulated by the departmental, or cess, schools, as well as the ordinary pathsala of Bengal, of which a great number are conducted and taught by Kayasths, are essentially secular. But the old indigenous schools of the Muhammadans and Sikhs in all parts of India, and of the Hindus in some Provinces, are more or less religious in character. Even in the special artizan-schools opened in Madras religious books are taught. The religious element is, however, more marked in the high class school, whether it be the Hindu *tol* or the Muhammadan *roadrasa*, than in the elementary school* It is, again, more marked in the Muhammadan elementary *maktab*, or the Sikh *Gurmukhi* school, than in the pathsala or elementary school of the Hindu village community. The distinctive principle of Hindu social life—caste—has stamped its impress on all Hindu educational institutions. The higher schools are practically closed against all but Brahmans, and the Brahman scholars are treated as the children of their master. In the primary schools all Hindu classes that are admitted to a defined position in the village community receive instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic; while the elements of a liberal education, though not entirely wanting, are confined to the acquisition of those versified Puranic legends which preserve and maintain the religious character of Hindu society in every grade of life. The principles of the Sikh faith were inconsistent with such monopoly of instruction. The instruction given in all classes of Hindu indigenous schools is so far practical that the Brahmans and other high or literary castes are taught the subjects which will qualify them either for the service of their religion or for their future civil position. The lower classes obtain such an instruction in elementary subjects of practical utility as is designed to qualify them for their several occupations in life, and serves also to protect them against unfair dealing. In particular, the study of mental arithmetic is carried to a high, pitch of excellence. Where there are no separate bazar schools, pupils belonging to the trading classes are exercised in native accounts and book-keeping, and in some Provinces they are taught the use of the peculiar character which their fathers have adopted from time immemorial. The Muhammadan schools, on the other hand, give little attention to practical instruction. They teach the Koran, but neglect arithmetic. While their religious character is more universally marked than that of Hindu schools, the paternal relation between master and scholar, so strongly felt in Hindu *tols*, is much less noticeable. These general remarks will be further illustrated in the more detailed examination of the various classes of indigenous institutions which follows.

It has already been noticed that the advanced indigenous schools have been least influenced by the Department. Their condition will be first examined; and the enquiry will then proceed to a general survey of the elementary indigenous schools of India which have not yet been incorporated into the State system, and which will be considered under the two divisions of the ordinary elementary village schools and the special bazar schools.

109. **High class indigenous Schools: Their religious character.**—The Punjab provincial Report contains little notice of the Sikh schools, though we have received a good deal of evidence on the subject from the witnesses of that Province. The literature of Gurmukhi—the character in which were written the words that flowed from “the mouth of the guru” Nanak—is said to be rich in manuscripts on science and religion, but there is no account before the Commission of any advanced Gurmukhi schools. Our review of high class indigenous schools or colleges is, therefore, confined to the Hindu tols and to the Muhammadan Arabic or Persian schools. The theocratic principle, which lies at the root of Asiatic civilisation, necessarily moulded the character of * the high schools in which the upper classes of Hindu and Muhammadan society educated their children. Amongst the Hindus, higher education was regarded in theory as the right and duty of the twice-born castes. In practice the pupils as well as the teachers belong almost exclusively to the Brahman caste. The relation between teacher and pupil is much more paternal in the Hindu than in the Muhammadan college. The Hindu law enjoined it as a religious duty on the Brahman that he should teach; and, in order that his undivided attention might be devoted to education, the sacred obligation of making provision for his temporal wants was imposed both on the sovereign and on the community. The Bengal tols are often liberally endowed, and on the occasion of Hindu festivals presents are given to their masters and pupils. As a consequence, the teacher is bound to make a free gift of his learning, and not merely is he prohibited from charging fees for his tuition, but he is expected to give free board and lodging to his pupils, and as a rule, at least in Bengal, he does so. Under a system in which the pupils were not only taught but maintained, the relation of the master to his pupil became almost paternal. The Hindu law enjoined on the scholar not only obedience, but a veneration for his teacher. Religious endowments were a meritorious act, and, as noticed in the Despatch of 1854, “munificent bequests have not unfrequently been made for the permanent endowment of “educational institutions.” ■ It can readily be understood how this system produced a public sentiment which has not yet been effaced by the widely different aims and policy of the Despatch of 1854. So far from a gratuitous education involving any notion of discredit, its provision was regarded as a sacred obligation on the State.

In the case of the Muhammadan madrasa the personal attachment between the teacher and his pupils is not so marked. This difference may be attributed to the distinct characteristics of the two religious systems. The Brahman commands more personal veneration than the Maulavi. The diverse character of Hindu and Muhammadan endowments reflects the distinction. A Muhammadan educational endowment, whether of landed or other property, is made in favour of some institution founded by a pious Maulavi; whereas the Hindu endowment, though it carries with it the solemn obligation of teaching, is made in favour of a great Pandit and his personal heirs. The Muhammadan pupil, who is educated or even supported by the endowment, does not feel personally bound to his teacher in the same way as the Hindu pupil does to his spiritual guide from whom he derives both instruction and

maintenance. The character of the instruction, however, in both institutions, whether Hindu or Muhammadan is essentially, though not exclusively, religious, as will appear from a detailed survey of higher indigenous institutions in the various Provinces of India,

110. Madras : High indigenous Schools.—From the evidence bearing on the subject of Muhammadan education in Madras, and from the absence of any mention of them in the Provincial Report, it may be assumed that there are no Muhammadan colleges or schools of the higher class in the Southern Presidency. Out of a population exceeding 31 millions, there are not two millions of Muhammadans, and their indigenous schools are of a very elementary character. But the Report of our Provincial Committee gives some account of the Hindu advanced indigenous institutions. In every large town containing Brahman residents, and in every Hindu *mattam*, or monastery, instruction through Sanskrit in the Vedas, Upanishads, the Indian system of logic and philosophy, the grammar of Panini, rhetoric, the Hindu epic poems and dramas, and Hindu law, has been given from the earliest period. In Tamil, also, the high priests of the *matiams* are accustomed to give lectures in the classical works, both literary and ethical, of the Madura Sangam or college, and in the system of the Saiva religion. An association in Madras has undertaken the patronage of some of these schools, and besides supporting two Sanskrit high schools, gives annual rewards to the Pandits and pupils after an examination. The trustees of Pachaiyappa's charities also support a small Sanskrit class at Chillambaram. Thus, in the Madras Presidency, a few Sanskrit schools have received the recognition of prominent bodies, although none of them appear to have either solicited or obtained aid from the Department of Public Instruction.

111. Bombay: High indigenous Schools—In Bombay there are 48 Hindu Vedashalas and Sanskrit schools; 6 Muhammadan madrasas for youths of the Borah classes—converts from Hinduism to the Muhammadan religion; and 4 Parsi high schools for the sons of Parsi priests. The Hindu schools are exclusively attended by Brahmans. The Veda schools are purely religious, and are held either in the verandah of the guru's house or in the temple. Instruction is given gratuitously. The Sanskrit schools are partly secular, and the teachers take no fees. Some years ago a small allowance was made to some of these schools from the Dakshina Fund, which is administered by the Education Department. The Muhammadan madrasas are supported by subscriptions from the well-to-do Borahs, but one at least of them is not unwilling to receive State aid. The 4 Parsi high class schools, of which 3 are in Bombay, are well-endowed. The methods and subjects of instruction given in these several schools are fully described at page 71 of the Provincial Report. It is sufficient to mention that the main object of the Veda **schools** is to teach Brahmans to recite mantras, and to fit them for the exercise of sacerdotal functions. The teaching of the Muhammadan schools is chiefly directed to the interpretation of the Koran, but Arabic grammar is inodotally taught. In the Parsi schools the writings of Zoroaster are taught in the original Zend, and in the later Pehlvi and Pazend versions. Instruction is also given in Persian, Sanskrit, and English. In the Hindu Sanskrit schools, grammar, logic, medicine, and philosophy are also taught; while the partly **secular** Muhammadan schools of a high order teach reading, writing, and notation in Persian and in Hindustani or Arabic-Sindhi. From this account it may be gathered that, while an object common to all these schools in a greater or less degree is to impart religious instruction, the Parsi schools teach a somewhat advanced course; and that the Sanskrit institutions educate Brahman boys in

some higher subjects which, although of little practical utility, if judged by European standards, are still partly secular. The Muhammadan schools, however, teach little beside the Koran. The Arabic college of Surat, founded in 1809 by the Borah community, had become famous in 1824, when it was attended by 125 students, of whom many were boarders from distant Districts. But secular studies formed only a nominal part of the course; and the institution having failed to keep abreast of modern wants has now fallen into decay.

112. Bengal: **High indigenous Schools;**—The Muhammadan population of Bengal exceeds 21 millions. The Calcutta Madrasa is maintained from provincial revenues, and five other madrasas, teaching to the same high standard, are supported from the income of the Mohsin Endowment Fund. In Behar, and in the south-western Districts of Bengal and Orissa, large and successful institutions of the same general character, founded by private liberality, are not uncommon. But in the rest of Bengal the unaided institutions of this order are generally neither numerous nor well attended. One of them, situated at Sitapur, with three teachers attached to it, has only 21 students on the rolls. On the other hand, there are no fewer than 1,010 Hindu high class tols which educate 7,680 pupils. The medium of instruction is Sanskrit, and the subjects taught are grammar, synonyms, poetry, rhetoric, astronomy, and to a less extent logic, philosophy, law, and medicine. The master is a Brahman, except in the schools of medicine which are taught by Vaidyas. It is said that the popularity of the tols has declined with the growing neglect of Sanskrit. But except in the Punjab, where the Lahore Oriental College has endeavoured to cope with the difficulty, Bengal, alone of the Provinces of India, has attempted to counteract the natural decline of higher indigenous education. For many years the tols of Nuddea have received a grant from Government of Rs. 100 a month. In another direction assistance of a different character has been given. It was the practice of the tols Pandits to confer titles on their most proficient pupils. Recently the Bengal Department has instituted examinations and conferred such titles, with a view to stimulating the vitality of the Sanskrit schools. The popularity of the experiment is attested, according to the report of the Director, not only by the number of candidates, but by the enthusiasm that the scheme has aroused among the leaders of the Hindu community. In the four years during which the examinations have been held, 232 candidates, chiefly Brahmans, have presented themselves from tols in Bengal and other Provinces, and 110 have passed. The industry of the candidates and of their teachers has been stimulated by the liberality of men of wealth and influence in Bengal. Last year twenty prizes of the value of Rs. 1,100 were awarded from private endowments created since these examinations were instituted in 1878, in addition to prizes to the value of Rs. 450 given by Government. The branches in which the successful candidates passed will throw some light on the subjects of study in those schools. Of the 110 who passed, 46 took up literature, 37 law, and 27 various branches of Darsana or philosophy. An association of Pandits has also been formed at Dacca, with the similar object of bestowing titles after examination on the pupils of tols in Eastern Bengal. It receives a grant from Government of Rs. 500.

113. **The North-Western Provinces and Oudh: High indigenous Schools.**—In the Provincial Report for the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, the Muhammadan high class schools are noticed at length. It is there pointed out that the first object of education amongst the Muhammadans is religion, and the second culture. An intimate knowledge of the language in which the Koran is written and of the commentaries upon it is first acquired. Some acquaintance with Persian is gained in studying Arabic, and thus the literature

of these two languages is opened to the Muhammadan student. He may select for himself any subject which he fancies, whether history, literature, grammar, logic, or law. The following testimony of the Honourable Sayyid Ahmad, Khan Bahadur, may be quoted in favour of the efficiency of these schools in the North-Western Provinces : “ They have mainly contributed to the preservation and maintenance of oriental literature and science in this country. Even at the present time those who have acquired any degree of fame for proficiency in oriental science and literature will be found to owe their celebrity to these schools.” The Hindu Sanskrit schools of which nearly one-half are in the city of Benares, are in character similar to those which exist in Bengal. It is estimated that there are in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh 235 advanced Hindu schools with 4,100 scholars, and 180 advanced Muhammadan schools, with 2,571 scholars. The distinction between these two classes of schools, is marked by the fact that, whereas nearly half of the Muhammadan scholars pay fees, 82 per cent, of the Hindu scholars contribute nothing to the cost of their education. So far, however, as their relations to the Department are concerned, both classes of schools are entirely independent, and their system has not been influenced in any way by the action of the British Government.

114. Punjab : High indigenous Schools.—The Muhammadan population of the Punjab exceeds in numbers all other classes of the community. Their advanced indigenous schools are popular and numerous. The charitable character of the Muhammadan Arabic schools is illustrated by the circumstance that itinerant students go from place to place begging a living, and often acquire a respectable amount of scholarship in indigenous schools. The system of instruction pursued in a Persian school is admitted to be fairly efficient, and students who attend for a sufficient time obtain a considerable knowledge of Persian literature. In calligraphy and accurate scholarship they are said to be superior to the boys trained in the Government schools. The popularity of these Persian schools is attested by the fact that Hindus attend them in large numbers. The Sanskrit schools are similar to those found in other parts of India. Most of the pupils are studying for religious orders, and they are educated gratuitously. Very full accounts of the indigenous system in the Punjab are contained in the evidence of the witnesses who appeared before the Commission. The higher Hindu schools teach rhetoric, logic, philosophy, mathematics, whilst the Muhammadan madrasas give a complete course of instruction in the Arabic grammar and literature, law, logic, and theology. The information given in the annual Reports of the Department is acknowledged to be very incomplete. There are, however, grounds for supposing that the Muhammadan advanced institutions in the Punjab are not fewer or less efficient than in the neighbouring North-Western Provinces. None of them are aided or recognised by the Department; but it is one of the functions of the Punjab University to encourage indigenous learning, and it has attempted to do this by maintaining an Oriental College at Lahore and by liberally rewarding proficiency in Arabic, Sanskrit, and the literature of the Sikhs.

115. Other Provinces: High range Schools*—It is not probable that any indigenous schools of an advanced order have escaped notice in the other Provinces of India, excluding Burma. For Assam 83 schools are returned, but they are stated by the local authorities to be of an elementary character. In the Central Provinces there were in 1861, when the Administration was constituted, a few indifferent madrasas and Sanskrit schools. But the constant political disorders, to which these and the adjoining Haidarabad Districts were in old times subject, must have checked education, and the omission

from the reports of any mention of high indigenous schools is easily understood.

116- High indigenous Schools: Summary—The history of the Arabic college of Surat proves that, even in an outlying District, far removed from the centres of Muhammadan influence, it was possible for an indigenous Muhammadan college to retain a high reputation and attract students. The decline of such institutions is not wholly due to the exclusion of sound secular instruction from their course. The Muhammadans still deeply prize the classical education which is given in their special madrasas. They recognise the importance of religious training, and value that cultivation of the minds and manners of their children which results from an acquaintance with Arabic and Persian literature. They undoubtedly feel that the practical utility of such an education has been undermined by the circumstance that English has taken the place of Muhammadan law, and that the Persian language has been displaced by English. But the vitality of the religion of Islam and the tastes of the cultivated classes which profess it, have not been weakened; and the indigenous system of education, which gave practical expression to the sentiments of the community, is as much cherished in the hearts of the upper classes of Muhammadan society as ever. If their system exhibits signs of decay, that result is due as much, if not more, to the widespread poverty and comparative collapse of their society, as to any appreciation of the fact that the rising generation must adapt themselves to the altered circumstances of modern life. With the Hindus, however, the decline of their higher institutions is due in a great measure to the natural quickness and practical instincts of the Brahmans, who have realised the altered circumstances which surround them, and have voluntarily abandoned a classical education for one more suited to modern conditions of success. The tols are deserted because the college Professor's lectures have become the road to advancement. In short, the unprogressive character of higher indigenous education in India is simply the result of natural laws.

117. Attitude of the Department towards such Schools—This consideration, which suggests the difficulty of protecting archaic institutions against processes of natural decay, has undoubtedly influenced the Department in generally holding aloof from higher indigenous schools. The principle of religious neutrality, accepted by the State, has also in most Provinces interposed difficulties in the way of assisting schools which are there sometimes exclusively religious. The exigencies of finance have, added further arguments in favour of a policy of inactivity. The educational funds in each Province are already unequal to the task imposed upon them. Madrasas and tols represent higher and classical education—an education which is now commonly regarded as having less claim upon the funds of the State than education of a more elementary or a more practical character. In these days) new wants have arisen, and the State has endeavoured to meet them by establishing a new order of colleges and high schools, and by encouraging the growth of English education among all classes of the community. It has been shown that only in Bengal and the Punjab has any public attempt been made to recognise and encourage Sanskrit schools by a monthly subsidy, by the offer of prizes, and by the introduction of title examinations or by other means. The success of the experiment of title examinations recently introduced in Bengal has not yet been so thoroughly established as to justify us in recommending the system for general adoption. We are, however, agreed in recommending *that all indigenous schools, whether high or low, should be recognised and encouraged, if they serve any purpose of secular education whatsoever*. This condition of aid is necessitated alike by the policy of religious neutrality, and by financial considerations. In what

form encouragement should be rendered is a question which cannot be so easily determined. The managers of madrasas and tols in Bombay and Bengal view with different feelings the prospect of subjecting their schools to inspection. The disintegrating results of English civilisation have operated with different degrees of force upon native society in the various Provinces of India. We can, therefore, only recommend that the best practicable method of encouraging indigenous schools of a high order, which desire recognition, be ascertained by the local Education Department in communication with the Maulavis and Pandits and others interested in the subject; and it is possible that the Universities may be willing to co-operate with the officers of the Department in considering the question. The testimony of the Honourable Sayyid Ahmad, Khan Bahadur, has already been quoted in favour of the high culture which is given in the Muhammadan madrasas. The Sanskrit tols are also the only institutions left in which the study of Sanskrit literature and philosophy is cultivated according to the old traditional method. The Bombay Provincial Committee* have suggested measures for rescuing the classical study of Sanskrit from decay, and their proposals involve the liberal co-operation of native society. The best remedy which financial considerations will admit can be determined only by the local authorities; and we do not think that any detailed suggestions on our part would be useful or desirable. The question is complicated not merely by general considerations of the relative value of a modern and a classical education, but also by local circumstances which can only be ascertained and appreciated by the provincial authorities.

118, Extent of Elementary indigenous Schools. — The annexed Table shows the number of elementary indigenous schools known to the Department, which have not yet been incorporated into the departmental systems^{af} in various Provinces of India.

N-AMfg OF PfiOTINCB.	ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.		OTHER INDIGENOUS SCHOOLS.		TOTAL.	
	Number of schools.	Number of scholars.	Number of schools.	Number of scholars.	Number of schools.	Number of scholars.
I	2	3	4	5	6	7
Madras	2,828	54,064	2,828	54,064
Bombay	3*954-	78,205	58	550	4,012	78,755
Bengal	3,265	49,238	1,018	8,067	4^3	57,305
North-Western Provinces and ^o) Oudh. J	6,712	61,634	415	6,671	7,127	68,305
Punjab	6,362t	86,023+
Central Provinces .	[83]	[3,748]			Mi	[3, mt
Assam	497	9,733	1..	4**	V 497	9,133
Coorg	4t	470		t	41	470
Haidarabad Assigned Districts .	[207]	[2,672]	...		[207]	[2,672]
TOTAL FOR INDIA	17,297	253,344	1,491	15,288	25,150	354,655

According to this statement, there are now 253,344 scholars in indigenous elementary schools which lie outside the influence of the Department. The statistics supplied from the Punjab are defective; but assuming that there are 70,000 pupils in elementary schools in that Province, there would be nearly 210,000 pupils in such schools in the three Provinces of Bombay, the North-Western Provinces, and the Punjab, who remain unaffected by the operations

* Page 146 of the Bombay Provincial Report.

f These statistics are admitted to be incomplete. [A return received since the above was written and passed by the Commission, shows 13,109 indigenous schools, with 135,384 pupils, in the Punjab.]

* The numbers in square brackets relate to maided indigenous schools *under inspection*, and are therefore included in the Tables of statistics for Primary schools.

of the Despatch of 1854. It can readily be understood that indigenous schools have not offered any 'uniform basis on which the Department could build. Owing to the strong religious tendency of the maktab and the Gurmukhi schools, they have less readily lent themselves to the influence of the Departments than the Hindu schools. The pathsalas have accordingly been largely incorporated into the State systems, while the Muhammadan and Sikh schools have remained outside them. In Bengal it is upon the elementary indigenous schools that the entire system of primary education has been almost exclusively built, and under that head, therefore, the character and progress of these adopted schools will be considered. In Madras, and in the Central Provinces, the indigenous agency has been very largely employed. In Bombay, on the other hand, the preference has been given to departmental, or cess, schools, which have been created by Government in consequence of the alleged poverty and inefficiency of the indigenous system. In the North-Western Provinces and in the Punjab, where the Muhammadan and Sikh schools are most numerous, little notice has been taken of the indigenous schools. The number of unaided schools in these last Provinces is therefore larger in proportion to the number of public primary schools than elsewhere.

119. Democratic character of elementary indigenous Schools— There is a certain degree of family likeness between elementary indigenous schools, whether Hindu or Muhammadan, throughout the country. For the present we reserve notice of the bazar schools which are found in many Provinces of India. These schools are in some respects institutions of a special kind and differ from the ordinary indigenous village-school. They are regarded by some as secessions from the pathsala on the part of the trading communities, who required something better suited to their needs than the regular course of instruction given in the village-school. To the ordinary indigenous school of an elementary type a partially religious character frequently attaches. This is universally the case with the maktab of the Muhammadans and with the Gurmukhi schools of the Sikhs. But in the ordinary Hindu pathsala religious instruction may or may not find a place. In the indigenous schools of Bengal, many of which are taught by Kayasths, no religious instruction is given, but in Western and Southern India a short prayer or the recitation of sacred verses often forms part of the school course. Still, even where religion is taught in Hindu elementary schools, secular subjects are the chief part of the course. The prominent feature of these schools is their democratic character. The Hindu system, so jealous of the rights of the sacerdotal class, did not forget the interests of the whole village community. All except outcasts, and the lower castes whose touch was pollution, were admitted to the pathsala. With the admission of non-Brahman castes in large numbers to the school the instruction necessarily ceased to be free. While, therefore, education in the high school or tal was gratuitous, the master of the village school was supported by fees from his pupils, who paid either in cash or in kind or in both. But the national sentiment in favour of gratuitous education was not wholly absent even from the Hindu elementary school. Generally speaking, a wealthy Hindu, who supported a school for his own children, permitted his poorer neighbours to send their sons for gratuitous instruction. Occasionally village teachers would admit poor children without charge. The relations between parents and master were thoroughly friendly, and the latter was admitted into the houses of the former on terms of perfect confidence. The character of the instruction given was extremely elementary, as will be shown below.

The Muhammadan elementary maktab was naturally even more democratic than the Hindu school, and excluded no class of the Muhammadan com*

m unity. It was at the same time essentially religious. Government and religion are twins/5 is a common saying of the Muhammadans; and their schools for the masses are hardly less religious than their madrasas. This religious tendency has stood in the way of the incorporation of maktabas into the departmental system. Their course of instruction in secular subjects is very limited. Arithmetic, grammar, and geography are almost neglected. Another disadvantage under which Muhammadan elementary schools have laboured has been their neglect of the vernacular. Urdu and a little Persian are exclusively taught, even where the community have adopted, as they have in Bengal proper and in the Gujarathi Districts of Bombay and elsewhere, the vernacular language of the Hindus.

The Sikh school is pre-eminently democratic. All Sikhs are equal, and no class is excluded from the Gurmukhi school. The language of the Granth, or scriptures taught in the Sikh school, though regarded as vernacular, is an antiquated dialect, and quite unintelligible to the children who recite it. In the Western Districts of the Punjab, Hindus of the trading classes have very generally adopted the moral and spiritual teaching of the Sikhs without their rites and customs.

120. The System of indigenous School Instruction*—The comparative efficiency of indigenous and departmental schools varies in different parts of India; nor are the fees charged and the status of the unaided elementary school-master more uniform. These matters will be considered when we examine in greater detail the indigenous schools found to exist in each Ppa^io^Tj^Eft^he following description of a Hindu indigenous school, which^ims preserve^TM character intact, in spite of the various educational agencfe^.# doing it, is taken from one* of the Provincial Reports, and isXg&^rall^_ essential particulars of all elementary indigenous schools r^liaLi^ifiary daily routine of a Hindu indigenous school is nearly the same in all parts “of the Presidency. Each morning at about 6 o’clock the Pantoji, who is in some cases a Brahman and the priest of many of the families whose children attend the school, goes round the village and collects his pupils. This process usually occupies some time. At one house, the pupil has to be persuaded to come to school; at another, the parents have some special instructions to give the master regarding the refractoriness of their son; at a third, he is asked to administer chastisement on the spot. As soon as he has collected a sufficient number of his pupils, he takes them to the school. For the first half hour a Bhupali, or invocation to the Sun, Saraswati, Ganpati, or some other deity, is chanted by the whole school. After this the boys who can write, trace the letters of their *kittas*, or copy-slips, with a dry pen, the object of this exercise being to give free play to the fingers and wrist, and to accustom them to the sweep of the letters. When the tracing-lesson is over, the boys begin to write copies; and the youngest children, who have *peen* hitherto merely looking on, are taken in hand either by the master’s son or by one of the elder pupils. The master himself generally confines his attention to one or two of the oldest pupils and to those whose instruction he has stipulated to finish within a given time. All the pupils are seated in one small room or verandah, and the confusion of sounds, which arises from three or four sets of boys reading and shouting out their tables all at the same moment, almost baffles description.”

The following extracts from the Bengal Provincial Report will suffice to show the character of the instruction given in the indigenous schools of Bengal: “Generally speaking, the subjects of indigenous pathsala instruction

* Page 73, Bombay Provincial Report.

“ are writing, reading, arithmetic and accounts, zamindari papers and letter-
 64 writing, together with versified Puranic tales, and in Bekar versified heroic
 “ legends’as well. The direct teaching of the children is conducted by monitors
 “ or°pupil-teachers, and compact divisions of classes are not made.”
 “ On entering a pathsala, a boy writes the letters of the alphabet with a piece
 “ of chalk on the ground, repeating the names of the letters as he writes them.
 “ After the letters have been thus learnt, palm-leaves are used as materials for
 “ writing on with pen and ink, the first attempt being only to ink off the letters
 “ as they are traced by the guru with a pointed iron stylus. The pupils go on
 “ with the palm-leaves till they learn to write the compound letters, committing
 “ to memory at this stage the multiplication-table and various fractional tables,
 “ and being constantly practised one after another in the several tables of money,
 “ weights and measures. Every evening before the pathsala breaks up? all the
 “ children stand together and repeat the tables simultaneously in chorus, or
 “ sometimes they follow a monitor’s lead. From ° palm-leaf³ promotion is
 “ given to the ‘ plantain-leaf/ in which native arithmetic is taught. In most of
 “ the pathsalas slates, and in Behar *taktis* or boards, are also being used. The
 “ scholar is now at liberty to take up paper. He is taught letter-writing,
 “ zamindari and mahajani accounts, forms of documents, and the versified
 “ Puranic tales, and lastly a little Sanskrit grammar and *abhidhan*. The age at
 “ which it is customary for pupils to enter pathsalas is five years, on some
 “ auspicious day fixed by the priest. The stay of the pupils at school is about
 “ five or six years, comprising two full stages of instruction.” In makhtabs
 the pupils learn by rote parts of the Koran and other religious books ; they
 also read a little Persian and Urdu, and in a few cases learn to write Persian.
 There is the same shouting and confusion in teaching a class of Muhammadan
 boys as are found in the Hindu school, and these form part of the peculiar
 charm which parents appreciate in the indigenous system.

121. Madras: Elementary indigenous Schools—In his “Note on Edu-
 “ cation in British India prior to 1854 and in 1870-71Mr. Howell remarked on
 the absence of any statistics of indigenous schools from the Madras report. But
 prior to Act IV of 1871, the Local Funds Act of Madras, the encouragement
 and assistance of indigenous elementary schools had been actively commenced.
 After 1871 the fuller prosecution of the task became the first charge upon
 the funds created by statute. It must not be forgotten, however, that in
 Madras a vast educational machinery of European missionary societies had
 long been acting upon native society and affording a model to indigenous
 institutions. In 1871 there were 1,129 mission vernacular schools for Jboys in
 that Presidency. The efforts of a single Department consisting of a few
 European Inspectors were necessarily small in comparison with such a force
 as the numerous societies of Madras were able to exert. The indigenous
 schools of Madras exhibited under these influences an alacrity in adopting advice
 and accepting improvements which has been wanting in most other parts of India.
 The Department working through the local boards soon induced the indigenous
 schoolmasters to accept inspection on condition of receiving grants on the result-
 system, or on the combined system of salary and result-grants. A steady
 improvement was effected in their method and subjects of instruction. Reading-
 books were freely introduced; exclusive reliance upon memory yielded to a
 more sensible system of explanation and learning with intelligence; mental
 arithmetic and the elaborate multiplication tables were not superseded, but
 were supplemented by the method of working out arithmetical sums bn the
 slate; even history and geography were gradually accepted as part of the school
 coupe. Without anticipating the account which will be given of the improved
 indigenous schools in the next Chapter, it may be observed that in 1881-82 there

were 1,263 Government or board primary schools in Madras, as against 7,414 aided and 53,809 inspected institutions of the same class. The duty of aiding indigenous schools is entrusted to the boards, who are thus able to compare their efficiency with that of their own schools; and it is the rule of the boards not to establish fresh schools of their own where there are any suitable indigenous schools willing to receive aid and supervision. It is estimated that about 8,500 indigenous schools have been brought under the organised system; and the 2,828 schools, which still lie outside the circle of State supervision, are expected in due course of time to become qualified for grants-in-aid. Meanwhile, although they do not receive aid, they are largely affected by the example of their neighbours and by the influence of the Department. In short, the indigenous machinery of elementary education is in Madras working as a highly important part of the whole educational machinery of the Province, and the signal success achieved there in developing the indigenous schools has suggested most of our Recommendations for improving and aiding such schools throughout India.

122. Bombay: Elementary indigenous Schools.—In Bombay there are 3,954 elementary indigenous schools with 78,205 pupils, which still lie outside the State system, but 19,720 of these pupils are in the Native States, whose educational machinery is supervised by the Department. There are only 73 such institutions receiving aid from the State, while the board schools for boys alone number 3,630. The exclusion of so large a number of indigenous schools from the State system, when similar institutions form an important part of the Madras system, demands some explanation. Partly owing to the disorganisation of the country for many years before the establishment of British rule, and partly because the secular school had never taken root in the village-system as it had in Bengal, it was considered necessary by the Government, when it entered upon its task of educating the masses, to create new schools rather than to work upon the basis of improving the indigenous schools. There is evidence that the Board of Education twice in the course of their administration, in 1842 and 1847, seriously considered and abandoned the notion of working upon the indigenous system. In 1847 they found that the total number of indigenous schools of all sorts in the Presidency was only 1,751; and even at a still later date 90 per cent, of the villages had no school at all. In 1852 they introduced the system of offering small grants-in-aid to indigenous schools. In 1855, in 1863, and again in 1875, a census was taken, and a steady growth in the number of indigenous primary schools was recorded. In the last of the three years just mentioned there were 3,330 such schools teaching nearly 79,000 pupils.

The most important step in the direction of assisting these schools was taken by Mr. Peile in 1870. He assimilated the standard of instruction in the two lowest classes of the cess-school to the indigenous school course, the immediate effect of which was to place the indigenous schools in organic relation with the Department as ancillary institutions, and to ensure their stability. The indigenous schoolmaster has gradually accepted the position, and has in some measure responded by extending his course along the lines of the departmental system. Mr. Peile also framed special rules for assisting indigenous schools, which will be noticed in Chapter YUL It is clear, therefore, that the backwardness of the indigenous schools in Bombay, and their practical exclusion from the State system, have not been due to any want of information or to the indifference of the Department. The subject of their claims has been revived several times since 1854, and in no Province of India has more accurate information regarding their condition been obtained. Their isolation has been due to the competition and success of the cess schools. The Local Government at the outset considered the indigenous schools not merely inefficient, but wholly insufficient.

As soon as it created its own schools, it appeared that the poverty of the native schools, and not the opposition of the masses to education, was the cause of the general absence of education. The American war, which gave an enormous stimulus to the cultivation of cotton and so enriched the peasant proprietors in Bombay, led them to appreciate the advantages of education for their children. As fast as schools were opened they were filled. Notwithstanding the interruptions caused by famine, ten thousand scholars have been added year by year to the attendance in cess schools. With so strong a demand for instruction it was possible to raise the standard rapidly and to improve the character of the primary schools. In a very few years the cess schools had entirely left the indigenous schools behind. The imposition of a local rate, which was for five years collected on a voluntary basis, created a permanent fund for primary education; and the local boards at once took an active part in the management of the departmental or cess schools. The several committees identified themselves with the improvement of their local schools, and their popularity was still further increased. Every addition to the popularity or the efficiency of the cess schools thus left the indigenous schools further and further in the background. Moreover, with the large attendance at the cess school the cost of its maintenance decreased, so that, while education at the cess school was more thorough than at the indigenous school, it became also cheaper. The result has been that time has only widened the gulf between the cess and the indigenous school. The masses value the education given in the former, and merely put up with the latter when they cannot obtain the former. The local boards, as trustees for the cess-payers, have spent the cess on the class of schools which the cess-payers prefer. In no part of India has the standard of primary instruction advanced higher than in Bombay, and the fear, which has found expression in Bengal and in the North-Western Provinces, that education above the traditional standard will either empty the schools or unsettle the minds of cultivators, is not put forward in Bombay. The low condition of the indigenous schools is therefore due to their inability, without more regular aid and encouragement than they have yet received, to keep pace with the cess schools.

The policy of inactivity in regard to the practical encouragement of indigenous schools in the Bombay Presidency has been so deliberate, that we have given at length the arguments which have induced the Department to adopt it. Admitting, however, the comparative inferiority of indigenous institutions, we consider that efforts should now be made to encourage them. They have survived a severe competition, and have thus proved that they possess both vitality and popularity. Numerous examples furnished by the history of education in Madras, as well as in Bengal, prove the possibility of adapting the indigenous system to modern requirements, and while the cess schools of Bombay will supply a valuable model, the indigenous schools, if recognised and assisted as we shall presently propose, may be expected to improve their method and fill a useful position in the State system of national education. The introduction of a wider scheme of self-government offers a favourable opportunity for a new departure in the treatment of the elementary indigenous schools of Bombay.

123. Bengal: Elementary; indigenous Schools.—The history of the several systems under which the indigenous schools of Bengal have been brought under the influence of the Department, will be traced at length in the next Chapter of this Report, which deals with primary education. It is therefore unnecessary in this place to describe in any detail the character of the institutions that have not yet been incorporated into the State system. While 483834 indigenous schools in Bengal have been so incorporated, there are

3,265 such schools, giving instruction to 49,238 pupils, which are known to the Department as lying outside the inner circle of State supervision. Of these nearly two-thirds are elementary Hindu schools. The Bengal system of primary instruction is almost exclusively a system of indigenous schools more or less brought under the influence of the Department. Any schools, therefore, which lie outside the aided system are probably either extremely elementary, or else schools which are mainly religious. No information is given as to the proportion of unaided schools which belong to each of these two classes. But it is hardly necessary to pursue the enquiry further, as there is no question that in Bengal the claims of the indigenous schoolmasters, if they are not adequately met, are still fully admitted as a matter of principle.

124. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Elementary indigenous Schools. — The number of unaided indigenous schools in these Provinces, namely, 6,712, giving instruction to 61,634 pupils, is larger than that returned for any other Province of Northern India. But in an interesting account of the indigenous system, which will be found in the Report of the Provincial Committee, reasons are adduced for considering that the return under-estimates the facts. On the other hand, it must be observed that, whereas the average attendance in each indigenous school in Bombay is 19, it is only 9 in similar schools in the North-West. An efficient and popular schoolmaster usually attracts a large attendance, and there must therefore be many classes in the North-Western Provinces which hardly deserve the title of schools. In 1874 a census was taken, which showed that out of 563 maktabas, no less than 543 were simply classes of 4 boys under a family tutor. Out of 91 Kaithi or bazar schools, 41 were of a similar character. As regards the character of their instruction, very depreciatory opinions are entertained by some officials. But it is a remarkable fact that very many of the subordinate native officials of the Province are said to have been almost exclusively educated in schools of this sort. This circumstance would seem to justify a favourable opinion of their merits. In the first instance endeavours were made to extend elementary education by improving the indigenous schools, but the original plan was eventually exchanged for that of maintaining schools under the direct control of the Department; and although from time to time renewed attempts have been made to foster indigenous education, they were not, in the opinion of the Provincial Committee, prosecuted with sufficient earnestness to attain such success as might reasonably have been expected. Besides, the gratuitous education given to the bulk of the pupils in the halkabandi schools has placed the indigenous institutions at a disadvantage. Yet the indigenous schools retain their popularity, and they have even been persuaded to follow the example of the departmental schools in extending their course and improving their text-books and methods of instruction. The Committee are of opinion that while the efficiency of the halkabandi schools should be maintained, the importance of the indigenous schools should also be recognised. We entirely concur in this opinion, and hope that, if our Recommendations be systematically applied, the indigenous system in these Provinces will be treated as an integral part of the general system of education. A large number of the unaided institutions will then be placed on the aided list, and a fresh stimulus afforded to the extension of schools which at present compete successfully with the halkabandi schools for popular favour, notwithstanding the heavy disadvantages against which they have to contend. Among these disadvantages may be reckoned the orders of Government discarding the popular character, Kaithi, in favour of Nagari, as that in which the village records should be kept. The indigenous schools, in which Kaithi continued to be used, were thus heavily weighted in comparison with the halkabandi schools where Nagari was exclusively employed.

125. **The Punjab: Elementary indigenous Schools**—The indigenous schools are highly spoken of by several witnesses who have given evidence on the state of education in the Punjab. According to the official Report on Public Instruction for 1878-79, the last in which any statistics of indigenous schools were given, there were 4,662 institutions with 53,889 scholars. Dr. Licitnei obtained for the Commission returns of 6,362 unaided indigenous schools with 86,023 scholars, and estimated the actual number of the latter as at least 120,000. Recent enquiries conducted by the Education Department have shown that even this estimate is below the truth. But whatever be the exact number of the pupils, it is manifest that a wide field here exists for work in the cause of education. Circumstances peculiar to the Punjab render the question of encouraging these schools, although not devoid of difficulty, one of extreme importance. It is said that, except the village headmen and the wealthier classes of the agricultural community, the great mass of the rural population do not appreciate the advantage of instruction. The subjects taught in the departmental schools are held to be unsuitable for professional or practical purposes. Education, as now conveyed through the medium of Urdu, which is not the vernacular of the rural population, is said to have an unsettling effect on the cultivating classes, as leading them to look to an official career. Whereas in Bombay the demand for school is such that it is estimated that 50,000 more boys would immediately attend the departmental schools if funds were available for opening them, in the Punjab the attendance at departmental schools is only maintained with considerable difficulty. In Bengal and Bombay 2\ per cent, of the male population are found in elementary schools aided or maintained by the Department. In the Punjab only '91 per cent, are at such schools. In view, then, of the vitality of the indigenous schools, and of the comparative want of success of departmental effort, the recognition of the indigenous system seems to offer, the only practicable means of extending primary education. There are, however, special difficulties in the way. The religious feeling is peculiarly strong in a Province where Muhammadans and Sikhs constitute more than half of the whole population. The experience of other Provinces of India in which the most successful attempts have been made to influence the indigenous system, proves that the secular Hindu schools present fewer difficulties in the way of improvement than the religious schools of the Muhammadans and Sikhs. The task, therefore, of securing the co-operation of the indigenous schools of the Punjab has been more difficult than in Bengal or Madras, but conditions appear to be now more favourable to success. It is quite clear that without aid or encouragement from the Department indigenous schools in the Punjab have retained their popularity, and with such encouragement a far larger extension of primary education may reasonably be expected. The managers of these schools, whether Muhammadans, Sikhs, or Hindus, may be expected to understand that the Department entertains towards them friendly views, and that it is prepared to turn their schools to a use profitable alike to their teachers and to society. The extension of a system of self-government also justifies the hope that a fresh impulse will be given to indigenous education. It is through the instrumentality of the boards that so much progress has been effected in Madras, and there are special reasons which promise an even larger measure of success to the direction of local boards in the Punjab than elsewhere. No question has been more pressed upon our attention than that of the choice of a vernacular for the elementary schools of this Province. By giving to local boards full discretion to aid indigenous schools, and by allowing free play to the selection of the vernacular by the people themselves and by the boards which represent them, it may be hoped that a national system of primary education will be established in the Punjab upon a more satisfactory basis.

126. The Central Provinces and Haidarabad Assigned Districts: Elementary indigenous Schools.—The system of education in these two Provinces has been moulded upon similar lines. The unaided indigenous schools in each are exclusively elementary. In the former Province liberal grants are made to the schoolmasters who have accepted inspection and agreed to adopt improvements in their method. The incorporation of the whole indigenous system into the departmental scheme is merely a question of time. The Provincial Report states that in the Central Provinces all indigenous schools are brought under the payment-by-results rules so soon as their masters consent to keep registers. Of the 1,344 elementary schools recorded in the departmental returns, only 83 are unaided. In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, the proportion of aided schools to the whole number of indigenous schools is smaller. Out of 405 indigenous schools, 198 were aided, leaving 207 without aid, but not altogether outside the departmental scheme; for it appears that every indigenous school is visited and invited to earn a grant if it can. But the indigenous schools in these Districts are reported by Rao Bahadur Narayan B. Dandekar, Director of Public Instruction, to be both ephemeral and inefficient. It is, however, the avowed policy of the Resident at Haidarabad to encourage these institutions as far as possible, and systematic endeavours on the part of the Director of Public Instruction will doubtless be rewarded.

127- Assam: Elementary indigenous Schools.—Out of 1,351 primary schools recognised by the Department in Assam, 1,256 are aided. There are only seven Government and 88 unaided schools under inspection, exclusive of the 497 indigenous elementary schools which we have now to consider. The State system is therefore built, in this Province as in Bengal, mainly on the basis of private effort, but it differs from that of Bengal in the fact that in Assam the Department has for the most part created such effort and has not merely incorporated pre-existing indigenous schools. Except in Sylhet, no secular indigenous schools suitable for incorporation were found in the Province. The indigenous system, weak as it was, consisted of religious schools such as tols, maktabas, and a few Khampti schools. These last institutions are peculiar to Assam. The Xliampti tribes inhabit the country on the North-East Frontier of Lakhimpur, and are Buddhists by religion. They receive instruction in the Burmese character from itinerant monks, or Bapus, who come from beyond the Patkoi range, and visit the villages in turn, holding a class in each for three or four months. The pupils are instructed in religion as well as in reading and writing; but since most of the Khampti tribes lie beyond the British frontier, the information acquired by local officers regarding their habits is scanty. It is, however, stated that every male Khampti can read and write, and in some of their villages large collections of xylographs are found. The Department has experienced considerable difficulty in making use of the indigenous schools, whether Hindu, Muhammadan, or Khampti. Aid has been offered to the teachers on a few simple conditions which have been refused. The Department has therefore been obliged, except in Sylhet, to neglect the existing indigenous schools and to encourage pupils from the departmental schools to set up primary schools where they are wanted. Thus the Assam system is built upon private effort aided by the State, but not upon the indigenous institutions as in Bengal.

128. Coorg: Elementary indigenous Schools.—The indigenous system in this small territory lies quite outside the Department. There are 41 elementary indigenous schools, with 470 pupils. They are fairly distributed over the country and divided amongst the different nationalities. Nothing but the merest rudi-

ments is taught. The Hindus learn verses out of the Ramayana, the Xiingayats learn books "peculiar to their sect, reciting the verses in chorus after their masters without understanding the meaning | while the Muhammadans learn texts of the Koran in the same way. The number of schools has slightly increased in the last ten years. The fee for each pupil varies from 4 annas to Re. 1 a month. Money payments are supplemented by payments in kind, with presents of food and clothes at festival seasons. The general characteristics of the indigenous system of Northern India are therefore preserved with singular fidelity in this isolated region of the south. The instruction is partly religious, and the secular part of the course is very elementary. The vitality of these schools is, however, an argument for their encouragement.

129. The Status of indigenous Schoolmasters—It has been seen that in the advanced indigenous school, fees are rarely charged for instruction. The character of Hindu and Muhammadan religious endowments has been traced, and the paternal relation of the Brahman teacher to his pupils explained. It will presently be seen that all traces of gratuitous education are lost in the bazar schools, which are essentially commercial undertakings. The Maulavi or Pandit of the high school is respected, if not venerated, by his pupils, and is held in high estimation by their parents. The bazar school master, on the other hand, is the paid servant of the community, and holds no such position. The teacher of the ordinary elementary school stands midway between these two classes of schoolmasters, and his position in society rests to some extent on the adequacy of the income he derives from fees. If the school is of a decidedly religious character, the master receives the respect which is naturally paid to a teacher of religion. If it is wholly secular and based upon the departmental model, he is judged by the standard of the departmental schoolmaster; and not possessing the prestige of a Government servant, his social position is inferior to that of the subordinate of the Education Department. Thus, in Bombay, where the masters of the cess school and of the secular indigenous school exist side by side, the influence of the former is as a rule far greater than that of the latter. On the other hand, in Bengal and northern India, the schoolmaster of an old-fashioned indigenous school is much respected, and his position is not improved by his connection with the Department. It has even been held that the receipt of assistance from Government injures rather than improves the position of the Bengal pathsala gurm, so long as he confines himself to the traditional subjects of instruction. The more he depends upon the State, the less can he rely upon the maintenance of his fees, since the village community, while acknowledging the obligation of maintaining the guru, have no objection to transfer that obligation wholly or in part to the State. In Madras the indigenous schoolmaster of the old hereditary type is reported to be fast losing his influence through competition with the trained and certificated teacher of the new type. The average emoluments of the latter are said to be only Rs. 3[^] a month, exclusive of payments in kind and periodical presents on festive and ceremonial occasions. In Bombay the fee-receipts rarely exceed Rs. 8 a month in the larger, and Rs. 5 in the smaller, villages, while in cities an indigenous school headmaster occasionally earns Rs. 50 a month. On the whole, it may be assumed that, where the indigenous system has been little influenced by the spirit of modern education, the schoolmaster is respected. Inhere the new spirit prevails, respect is superseded by reputation, and reputation will be proportioned to the capacity of the master. But in the transition stage, the influence of the indigenous master is decreasing, and his claims upon the consideration of the villagers or townspeople can be but slowly re-established.

130, **The Bazar Schools** .—Our review" of the indigenous system will be completed by a brief notice of the bazar schools, which are found in several Provinces of India, and which springing from the practical wants of the people have accepted any useful change consistent with those wants. The ordinary Hindu pathsala endeavoured to give a useful education to all classes including the trading classes. But if the cultivating classes predominated, the chief share of the master's attention was necessarily devoted to them, while he could not neglect the claims of the few pupils who were preparing to * nter a tol. Meanwhile the children of the trading classes were not satisfied with the attention which they received, inasmuch as they required a more practical education than that which sufficed for the simple wants of the other members of the village community. Accordingly, in large towns, where the merchants and tradesmen were strong enough to supply their own demand, they established a special class of schools, called bazar schools. These schools are also called Lande, Sarafi, Hindu-Sindlii, or Mahajani schools, according to the peculiar character which they teach, and which the particular class employs in its business transactions. Their subjects of instruction are accounts, the writing out of bills and drafts, book-keeping, and mental arithmetic. Bazar schools are essentially a commercial speculation; and not only is the master usually paid in money, but he is generally paid on the contract system, receiving a fixed grant on the completion of a certain course of special instruction. As the servant of the parents, he has never commanded the respect which the religious Pandit of the high school, or the guru of the village school, obtains. The masters have no objection to receiving aid from the State but they naturally are slow to adopt any changes opposed to the conservation of the commercial castes who rigidly adhere to traditional habits of business and systems of account.

131. **Recommendations.**—It only remains for us to state our suggestions for making use of the material for education lying more or less neglected in the several Provinces of India, and for incorporating, where possible, in the scheme of national instruction the indigenous schools which according to the statistics furnished to the Commission are attended by 354,655 pupils and at present receive no recognition from the Departments. Our Recommendations deal with four matters *

- I—The schools to be assisted.
- II—The character of the assistance.
- III—The conditions of assistance.
- IV—The channel of distributing assistance.

But before discussing them we would briefly refer to the views entertained by one of our Punjab colleagues who is unable to concur in the conclusions at which a majority of us, including our colleague Mr. Haji Grhulam Hasan (who together with Mr. Pearson represented the Punjab), have arrived. Mr. Pearson approves of the policy of aiding and encouraging indigenous schools in the manner proposed by us, wherever it may be possible to do so, but he believes that the experiment has already received a fair trial in northern India, and that the schools have there been found unsuited for this kind of treatment. In the North-Western Provinces the original scheme of popular education devised by Mr. Thomason provided for the establishment of a small number of central Government Schools to serve as models to the indigenous schools in their neighbourhood, and, in the opinion of Mr. Pearson, it was only when the paucity and ephemeral character of these schools had been ascertained, and the impossibility of making any permanent impression upon them had been realised, that the halkabandi system was adopted in

preference. Similarly in the Punjab, when the Education Department was first established, the alternative of aiding the indigenous teachers or of taking them into Government employ, was carefully considered; and although the latter plan was adopted, it was not until some years afterwards that the separation of the village school from the mosque was determined upon as a necessary measure of reform. But if the departmental school ultimately superseded other plans for the extension of popular education, the idea of an outer circle of aided indigenous schools has never been lost sight of, but has been taken up from time to time by zealous officers of all grades, and has been the subject of numerous orders of Government. The uniform failure of these efforts can only be explained, in Mr. Pearson's opinion, by the absence of any real system of secular indigenous instruction for the masses in Northern India. The vast majority of schools enumerated in the returns are, he maintains, useful only for the recitation of texts and for other religious exercises, while the secular schools which have something in common with schools for general education are of an almost exclusively special character. The bazar school is usually kept by a man who knows how to teach the mere rudiments of shop accounts, and nothing else. The Persian maktab is not a vernacular school at all, and the opinion that it is above the requirements of the working classes has found expression in a favourite* proverb quoted by several of the Punjab witnesses. In Bengal it may be possible to improve a pathsala without any violent innovation, but according to the view which our colleague represents, little or nothing of this kind can be done in the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab without introducing strange and unacceptable studies for a purpose foreign to that which has called the school into existence.

132. *The Schools to be assisted.*—Three classes of indigenous agency have been considered,—the advanced schools and colleges, which are generally of a religious character; the ordinary elementary village schools, which are more or less democratic; and the technical bazar schools. We have included under the term "indigenous" all schools, without reference to the class of instruction afforded in them, which are established or conducted by natives of India on native methods. This definition will cover a larger area of educational agency than it may be practicable or desirable for the State, maintaining a policy of strict religious neutrality, to assist, or even to encourage in a less direct manner. We therefore consider it sufficient to recommend *that all indigenous schools, whether high or low, be recognised and encouraged, if they serve any purpose of secular education whatsoever.* The success which has attended the introduction of secular teaching into religious and monastic schools in Burma and in the neighbouring district of Chittagong, justifies the hope that in other parts of India a sympathetic treatment of schools, which are chiefly religious, may yet induce the managers to devote some part of their attention to secular instruction, and thus turn to advantage the influence which these institutions undoubtedly exert over native society. We would, therefore, exclude no class of schools from the privilege of connection with the State, or from the right to claim assistance, provided that they satisfy the secular tests imposed, and fulfil the conditions which will be noticed presently.

133. *The Character of the Assistance.*—Opinions naturally differ as to the best form of rendering assistance to indigenous schoolmasters. It is necessary at the outset to draw a line between higher and primary education. We have fully discussed in the course of our deliberations the difficulty of find-

* The proverb may be thus translated :—
Beads Persian and then sells oil;
'See the freaks of fortune !

ing funds and of selecting the best method for encouraging advanced Hindu and Muhammadan, schools or colleges. We recommend *that the best practicable method of encouraging indigenous education of a high order, desiring recognition, be ascertained by the several Departments in communication with Pandits, Maulavis, and others interested in the subject.* As regards the secular elementary schools, it has been alleged that in some Provinces the aid rendered by Government is at once accepted by the parents of pupils as an indication that their own contributions may be *pro tanto* diminished. The aid does not reach its object, and the natural objection which a conservative schoolmaster feels to innovation or improvement is not overcome by the prospect of personal advantage, except in those cases in which the villagers may be induced to attach value to the new subjects of instruction. It has therefore been suggested that the best form of aiding an indigenous schoolmaster would be for the State to pay the fees of all boys who are too poor to contribute towards the cost of their education. There are, however, practical difficulties in a system which would entail much trouble on the Inspector, and involve an enquiry into the circumstances of the village population that could neither be conducted with satisfaction to the people, nor with sufficient guarantee to the State. We therefore recommend *that the system of aid adopted be that which regulates the aid given mainly according to the results of examination.* The gradual improvement of the teaching power in the indigenous system is, however, in our opinion, a matter of such primary importance, that we recommend that special rules be made to meet the case. The co-operation and influence of the indigenous schoolmasters will alone enable the Department to raise the level of village schools conducted on native methods, without extinguishing them by well-meant, but injudicious, interference. Accordingly we recommend *that special encouragement be afforded to indigenous schoolmasters to wider go training, and to bring their relatives and probable successors under regular training.* In a subsequent paragraph we shall also suggest the bestowal of special grants in certain cases, on account of low-caste boys educated in indigenous schools.

134. The Conditions of Assistance.—If the State affords liberal grants for the results of examination, and organises Normal schools for the training of indigenous schoolmasters, it may expect that they on their part will accept the conditions imposed on them, and thus justify the Department in applying public revenues to their encouragement. We regard as the best policy that which proceeds with caution, and does not under the name of improvement destroy the distinctive methods and traditions to which bazar or village schools owe their vitality and popularity. We recommend therefore *that a steady and gradual improvement be aimed at, with as little immediate interference with the personnel and curriculum of indigenous schools as possible.* In order to carry out this policy and to re-assure the village schoolmasters, we recommend *that the standards of examination be arranged to suit each Province, with the view of preserving all that is valued by the people in the indigenous systems, and of encouraging by special grants the gradual introduction of useful subjects of instruction.* By such special grants the masters will be more readily induced to accept those improvements in their course which a progressive state of society demands. We do not attempt to define the useful subjects which should be added to the school course. The adaptation of the principle of gradual improvement must be left to the Local Governments, who can ascertain the locality, class, and condition of their indigenous schools, and shape their help and advice in the mould best suited to local circumstances. It is, however, essential that aided schools should submit to inspection. We recommend *that indigenous schools receiving aid be inspected in situ, and that,*

will generally be entrusted with the control of elementary education in departmental schools, and their attitude towards indigenous schools may be expected to cast light on the vexed question of the relative popularity of the two systems. We therefore recommend *that, where municipal and local boards exist, the registration, supervision and encouragement of indigenous elementary schools, whether aided or unaided, be entrusted to them, provided that such boards shall not interfere in any way with any schools which do not desire to receive aid or to be subject to the supervision of the boards.* This will not only secure the public recognition of such indigenous schools by local bodies entrusted with power, but will also enable the boards themselves to take a wide survey of the field of indigenous agency. The pressure of public opinion, as well as their natural instincts, will, it may be hoped, lead local boards in the direction of popular sentiment. If such boards are entrusted with the control of primary education as well as with the funds to supply it, they will doubtless give indigenous schools fair play; and, when they become efficient, a preference over the more expensive institutions maintained wholly by municipal or rural boards. We therefore recommend *that the aid given to indigenous elementary schools be a charge against the funds at the disposal of municipal and local boards, where such exists and that every indigenous school, which is registered for aid, receive from such boards the grants to which it is entitled under the rules.* A discretion would, it is true, be left to the boards to register or to refuse to register an application for aid. But the considerations of economy and local popularity (where such exist), to which we have referred, would incline the boards to enter schools on their list of aided institutions as far as funds permit. The amount of aid to be received would of course depend on the efficiency of the school as gauged by the Inspector. But the increase of the school fund administered by the board would correspond with the increase of the efficiency of the indigenous schools, and even if a municipal school had to be closed in order to meet the growing demands of the school, the result would be a satisfactory proof of the extension of primary education. In some parts of India, however, it may happen that the indigenous schools have fallen out of repute, owing in some cases to neglect; more frequently to a competition with the departmental school by which they could not but suffer; and occasionally to the real superiority of departmental schools and the preference of the people for them. We should therefore supplement our last Recommendation by the following: *that local and municipal boards be required to give elementary indigenous schools free play and development, and only establish fresh schools of their own when the preferable alternative of aiding suitable indigenous schools cannot be adopted.* It is not desirable to interfere with the discretion of boards in the exercise of the large powers which have been, or are about to be, conferred on them. At the same time it is necessary to provide a sufficient check upon their proceedings in order to ensure a proper observance of the conditions of aid and of the principles of administration which have been suggested. We therefore recommend *that one of the local inspecting officers be an ex-officio member of the municipal or district local board.* Where there are several inspecting officers at the same station, it will rest with the Local Government to decide who shall sit on the board. The association of the inspecting officer with the local board has not only been advocated by several native witnesses whose opinion is entitled to consideration, but it also seems to be the best mode of minimising interference from outside, while giving the boards timely and suitable advice in the discharge of their responsible functions. In order that the educational officers may be sufficiently acquainted with the facts to enable them to render such advice, we recommend *that the officers of the Education Department keep a list of all*

elementary indigenous schools and assist the boards in selecting the schools to be registered for aid and in securing a proportionate provision of education for all classes of the community. By these measures, if there should exist anywhere either a tendency to ignore the rights of the lower castes or of backward races, or a desire to keep any class of indigenous schools in the background, a remedy can promptly be provided. In all probability the experienced advice of the Inspector would be sufficient, but, should this fail, the matter would be brought to the notice of higher authority.

136. Recommendations recapitulated – Our Recommendations therefore stand as follows :—

Defining an indigenous school as one established or conducted by natives of India on native methods, we recommend that—

- (1) all indigenous schools, whether high or low, be recognised and encouraged, if they serve any purpose of secular education whatsoever :
- (2) the best practicable method of encouraging indigenous schools of a high order, and desiring recognition, be ascertained by the Education Departments in communication with Pandits, Maulavis, and others interested in the subject:
- (3) preference be given to that system which regulates the aid given mainly according to the results of examinations:
- (4) special encouragement be afforded to indigenous schoolmasters to undergo training, and to bring their relatives and probable successors under regular training:
- (5) a steady and gradual improvement in indigenous schools be aimed at, with as little immediate interference with their *personnel* or curriculum as possible :
- (6) the standards of examination be arranged to suit each province, with the view of preserving all that is valued by the people in the indigenous systems, and of encouraging by special grants the gradual introduction of useful subjects of instruction:
- (7) indigenous schools receiving aid be inspected *in situ*, and, as far as possible, the examinations for their grants-in-aid be conducted *in situ*;
- (8) aided indigenous schools, not registered as special schools, be understood to be open to all classes and castes of the community, special aid being, if necessary, assignable on account of low-caste pupils:
- (9) such a proportion between special and other elementary indigenous schools be maintained in each town and District, as to ensure a proportionate provision for the education of all classes :
- (10) where Municipal and Local Boards exist, the registration, supervision, and encouragement of indigenous elementary schools, whether aided or unaided, be entrusted to such boards; provided that the boards shall not interfere in any way with such schools as do not desire to receive aid or to be subject to the supervision of the boards:
- (11) the aid given to elementary indigenous schools be a charge against the funds at the disposal of Local and Municipal Boards where such exist; and every indigenous school, which is registered for aid, receive from such boards the aid to which it is entitled under the rules:

- (12) such boards be required to give elementary indigenous schools free play and development, and to establish fresh schools of their own only where the preferable alternative of aiding suitable indigenous schools cannot be adopted:
- (13) the local inspecting officers be *ex-officio* members of Municipal or District school-boards:
- (14i) the officers of the Education Department keep lists of all elementary indigenous schools, and assist the boards in selecting schools to be registered for aid, and in securing a proportionate provision of education for all classes of the community.

CHAPTER IV.

PEIMAET EDUCATION.

137- Public primary Schools.—Before proceeding to a definition of what is to be understood by primary education in India, it is necessary to state at the outset in what sense the term “public” is used in this and the following Chapters. By the term “public” we do not mean merely Government schools which are wholly supported at the expense of public funds, whether those funds be provincial, local, or municipal, but any schools which receive aid in any form from the State, even when that aid is confined to the benefits of inspection and supervision, as well as those which regularly send their pupils to the examinations held by the Department. We also include those primary schools supported or aided from the revenues of Native States which, having no educational Department of their own, are glad to make use of that of the British Government. The definition of primary education rests ultimately upon the Despatch of 1854. Its scope was there defined as consisting of so much knowledge, at least of reading and writing, and of the simple rules of arithmetic and of land measurement, as would enable each man to look after his own rights. Reference was made to the revenue settlements in the North-Western Provinces, in Madras, and Bombay, and to the “solid advantages attending elementary knowledge which can be plainly and practically made apparent to the understandings and interests of the lower classes in Bengal.” From the various references made to the subject, it is apparent that the character of primary education as understood by the Court of Directors was to be determined by the practical needs both of an agricultural and of an urban community, and that the course was to include reading and writing with elementary arithmetic and mensuration. The history of primary education in India shows that various systems, whether based upon the indigenous schools or created by the direct instrumentality of Government, have been set on foot in the different Provinces. Each system was developed along its own independent lines; and as time went on every one of them tended more or less to go beyond the simple standard indicated in the Despatch. In some Provinces where the advance was most marked, the departure was justified by the argument that the wants of rural society had been enlarged, and that the standard was not above the requirements of the masses. In Bengal, on the other hand, the standard was again in 1872 brought sharply back to the limits set by the Despatch. In dealing with the standards of instruction we shall notice the diversities which now exist, and in tracing the history of primary education in each Province, we shall explain its gradual development. We shall show that each system being the outcome of long experience has necessarily varied with local circumstances and local requirements. An attempt at securing uniformity was made in 1879, when the Government of India for the first time promulgated a definition of primary education for the whole Empire. Primary schools were defined as those “in which pupils are under instruction from the earliest stage up to the standard at which secondary instruction begins; this standard being marked by an examination to be called the upper primary examination.”⁵⁵ The standard of the upper primary examination was then given in detail. These orders not only presupposed and prescribed a uniform* or nearly uniform, standard of primary instruction

throughout India, but they also tended to identify that instruction with the lower section of a course ending in, and determined by, the Matriculation examination. In Bombay and Bengal the orders were received with great reluctance, and detailed objections to them, on the ground that they overlooked the special characteristics of the educational systems of those Provinces, were brought to the notice of the Supreme Government. The force of these representations was admitted. The Government of India disclaimed any intention of dislocating existing systems or of seeking uniformity merely as an incident to the revision of the educational Tables. Local Governments were therefore permitted to select from their own scheme of examinations those which most nearly corresponded to the primary standards as now defined, and to embody the results in the forms of return prescribed for the whole of India. Thus while compliance with the uniform standards laid down has been apparently secured, there is still nothing approaching to uniformity in the primary systems of the various Provinces. Having regard to these circumstances, we are of opinion that no advantage is to be gained by any attempt to secure uniformity throughout India, and we have recommended *that the upper and lower primary examinations be not made compulsory in any Province*. Each Province will thus be enabled to develop and improve its primary course according to the needs and growth of rural society; and it will be free to test the progress made by standards adapted to local wants. As regards the second point suggested by the definition of primary instruction given in the order of 1879, we are of opinion that it should not be regarded as a section cut off from a scheme of education leading to the University, but rather*as complete in itself, and as intended to impart such knowledge as will, meet all the reasonable and progressive wants of those numerous classes of the community who cannot afford to prosecute their studies in secondary schools. We therefore recommend *that primary education be regarded as the instruction of the masses through the vernacular in such subjects as will best fit them for their position in life, and be not necessarily regarded as a portion of instruction leading up to the University*,

138. Different Classes of Public primary Schools.—Under the wide definition given of public primary schools will be found ranged in very different proportions several classes of departmental and aided or inspected schools. In some Provinces village schools for the masses have to a large extent been originated by Government, while a few of the most promising indigenous schools have been incorporated into the State system by a direct process of conversion. Under this process the indigenous school has partially or wholly lost its distinctive characteristics, and become in reality a departmental school. Or again the influence of the Department has been less severe and rigid, and the indigenous school has received aid without sacrificing its peculiar method and course of instruction. The indigenous institutions have in this case been developed rather than converted. In one Province the whole system of the primary instruction of the masses—as distinguished from the instruction of pupils preparing for secondary schools—rests upon an indigenous foundation; and the superstructure has corresponded more or less fully to the ideal laid down in the Despatch of 1854 and in subsequent orders, in proportion to the endeavours that have been made to provide better qualified teachers and to raise the standard of efficiency of the country schools. It may also be observed that, in some Provinces of India, there have been interruptions and changes of policy, alternating between the several processes which have been described. Other differences of system will be noticed. In some Provinces control over the great mass of primary schools called cess schools has been entrusted to local boards, so far as finance and general supervision is concerned; while each village school has had a local committee, whose duty it has been to encourage

attendance, and to report any remissness on the part of the master. In other Provinces there have been school committees, but no local boards, and the officers of the Education Department have exercised an almost unlimited control. Sometimes the revenue officers have been made entirely responsible for the care and development of primary instruction, while in other cases these officers have contented themselves with offering such advice as has suggested itself from their independent inspection. Thus a great diversity of practice exists, which is the result not only of the local development of indigenous education, but also of the reflex action of general administrative progress. These differences will appear more clearly from the review which will be given of primary education in each Province.

139. Divisions Of the Subject.—It will be convenient to preface the detailed consideration of each provincial system by exhibiting in a tabular statement the distribution of the 85,916 primary schools scattered over India, and by showing the classes of the population which attend them. Premising that the term “departmental” is used in a wide sense as embracing municipal and local board schools as well as purely Government institutions, and dividing public schools into the three great classes of departmental, aided, and unaided but inspected institutions, we shall find that 16 per cent, of the public primary schools in India belong to the first class, 69 per cent, to the second, and 14 per cent, to the last. But the extraordinary diversity of systems may be illustrated from the following Table which shows the percentage of each class of school in each Province :—

Proportion of departmental, aided, and other primary Schools.

Province.	DEPARTMENTAL SCHOOLS.	AIDED SCHOOLS.	UNAIDED SCHOOLS UjtrDEB INSPECTION.
	Proportion per cent.	Proportion per cent.	Proportion per cent.
Madras	87	51-2	40*1
Bombay	7*4	3*6	2 5 *
Bengal	05	9i * 5°	8-45
North-Western Provinces .	95 ⁱ	4*2	*7
Punjab . .	84*8	*5*2	None.
Central Provinces . .	66-3	27 ³	6*4
Assam	05	93	6*5
Coorg.....	95	5	None.
Haidarabad Assigned Districts	52*9	237	23*4

* Most of these schools are really departmental schools in Native States.

It will be seen at a glance that in six of the nine Provinces of India, with whose system this Chapter deals, the departmental schools are the most important part of the machinery for diffusing elementary instruction. But it cannot be precisely ascertained what proportion of these departmental institutions were originally indigenous schools. In the Punjab a large number of native schools were thus converted, while in Bombay the bulk of the cess schools were the original creation of the Department. In Ajmir also the primary

schools, which are classified in accordance with the system adopted in the Northern Provinces, are chiefly departmental institutions, but we have explained in Chapter II the reasons which have prevented us from incorporating its statistics in our Report. The total number of pupils in the vernacular tahsili and halkabandi schools of Ajmir and Mhairwarra was 2,309 in 1880-81.

After considering in full detail the system of primary education which exists in each Province, and the methods of registering attendance with a view to the prevention of fraud, we shall examine the quality and character of the instruction, whether intellectual, physical, or moral, and the measures taken to improve the efficiency of the teachers. The fees charged and the prizes and scholarships given to the pupils will also be considered. Any special attempts made to extend elementary instruction in backward places such as the highlands of India or the forest tracts of the Central Provinces, and to educate particular classes of society will be noticed. The progress of female education will be briefly reviewed without anticipating a subsequent Chapter of this Report. We shall then consider the important subject of the relations of local boards, whether municipal or rural, to primary schools; and we shall conclude this review by an examination of the cost of primary education in each Province and the proportion of public expenditure devoted to the instruction of those classes which are least able to help themselves.

140- Two Theories of extending primary Education.—The tabular Statement which has just been given affords a convenient opportunity for prefacing the detailed account of each provincial system by a few general observations upon the opposite policies which have been pursued in different parts of India. In attempting to cope with the ignorance of the vast masses of the Indian populations whose density varies from 50 to the square mile in Sind to 637 in the Patna Division of Bengal, two different systems suggested themselves to the local authorities. There was no difference of opinion as to the ultimate object to be attained, namely, the widest possible extension of a good elementary education suited to the wants of society. Opinions differed only as to the most suitable means. On the one hand, the indigenous schools of the country, however inefficient, offered a ready material to work on; and by extending to them help, however small, their returns could be gauged by the statistics of primary education, and evidence could be thus gathered that the people were not being neglected. But while the indigenous schoolmasters were very ready to accept help, if it was not saddled with expenses, they were extremely slow in many parts of India to admit the advantages of an improvement which seemed to threaten them with extinction; while the younger generation were partly on conservative principles opposed to any change and partly unwilling to undergo the expense and trouble of a systematic training. Indian rural society moves slowly, and the demand on its part for a more thorough instruction was not likely to be effective until the whole feeling of the people and their standard of comfort were raised. It was therefore urged that, although education might be most readily and widely extended by building on the indigenous foundation, it could not be adapted to the progressive wants of society, unless for a generation or two the whole system of primary education was lifted out of the conventional rut and its level raised by the direct instrumentality of Government. It was argued that departmental schools, if opened in every large village of the country and so organised as to afford a thorough education under the direction of departmental inspectors and through the agency of good teachers, would not only create a national demand

for better teaching, but also raise the indigenous system without even any direct aid from the State. To attain the ends proposed by the State, regarding which no serious conflict of opinion has arisen, it was necessary to diffuse not merely elementary instruction, but such an instruction as would protect the poor against injustice, and promote a spirit of self-help and self-reliance. The departmental system could claim to have succeeded when it had raised the indigenous institutions *pari passu* with its own schools, and, while infusing fresh vigour into the former, had brought about their extension as well as their improvement. The system of incorporating the indigenous schools of the country could claim for itself the advantage not merely of rapid extension, but also of the recognition of the progressive wants of a society no longer stationary, provided that the method and course of instruction in indigenous schools had been sensibly improved. One further aspect of the case demands consideration. It was urged in favour of working upon the indigenous schools that it would develop self-help and promote private enterprise. Substantial assistance rendered to indigenous schoolmasters would encourage the profession of teachers, while their existence would not be endangered by competition with departmental schools. On the other hand, the advocates of the departmental method replied that indigenous schools had no existence amongst the aboriginal races, and did not generally admit the lowest castes of Hindu society; and therefore that exclusive reliance upon such schools would doom to perpetual ignorance large sections of the community who were incapable of helping themselves.

141. Both Systems sanctioned in the Despatches—Both systems could claim the sanction of higher authority. The Despatch of 1854 contemplated the wise encouragement of indigenous schools, and in view of the comparatively insignificant number of those who were receiving school instruction referred to “the almost insuperable difficulties which would attend such an extension of the present system of education by means of colleges and schools entirely supported at the cost of Government, as might be hoped to supply, in any reasonable time, so gigantic a deficiency, and to provide adequate means for setting on foot such a system as we have described and desire to see established.” In the Despatch of 1859 it was remarked that the mode of extending vernacular education adopted in the several Provinces naturally exhibited considerable diversity. The systems in force in the North-Western Provinces, in Bengal, and in Bombay were reviewed at length, and in paragraph 50 it was observed as follows: “On the whole, Her Majesty’s Government can entertain little doubt that the grant-in-aid system, as hitherto in force, is unsuited to the supply of vernacular education to the masses of the population; and it appears to them, so far as they have been able to form an opinion, that the means of elementary education should be provided by the direct instrumentality of the officers of Government, according to some one of the plans in operation in Bengal and the North-Western Provinces, or by such modification of those schemes as may commend itself to the several Local Governments as best suited to the circumstances of different localities.” These instructions confirmed the principle of incorporating and improving the existing indigenous schools, rather than of inducing the people to set up new schools under the grant-in-aid systems then in force; but they also sanctioned the establishment of new schools by direct departmental agency. Accordingly the Local Governments considered themselves free to adopt whichever system seemed to be most suited to local circumstances. Speaking generally, it may be said that the Governments of Bombay, the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab, Central Provinces, Coorg, and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts have hitherto worked mainly the departmental system. The total population of these Provinces

amounts to more than 99 millions, or not far short of one-half the whole population whose educational systems are under the consideration of the Commission. But it must not be supposed that, even under the same system, very wide diversities of practice and methods are not included. In the Central Provinces unceasing efforts have been made to expand the indigenous system. In Bombay very few indigenous schools are aided, but the neglect to give them pecuniary assistance has not prevented them from taking advantage in many cases of the increasing demand for education which the departmental system has created, and from improving their own method. The Provinces, on the other hand, in which primary education has been largely if not exclusively built upon the indigenous or aided schools, are Madras, Bengal, and Assam, with their population numbering 105J millions. But here again the Madras system differs widely from the Bengal system. The indigenous schools of Madras have before them the model of a fair sprinkling of departmental schools, and the numerous and wellmanaged institutions supported and directed by the efforts of missionary bodies. About one-half the whole number of primary schools (are improved indigenous schools, and of the remainder the most efficient are not always the departmental but generally the private aided schools. In Bengal the pre-existing indigenous schools have been induced by the offer of small grants to come in vast numbers within the departmental system: while in Assam the efforts of the Department have been chiefly directed to the establishment of new village schools under private management but assisted by much more liberal grants. These differences will be traced in greater detail hereafter. It is only here necessary to repeat that the phrase “ public schools ” includes departmental, aided, as well as unaided but inspected schools, while the phrase “ departmental is applied to schools supported by local fund committees and municipalities, as well as to those which are exclusively managed by the officers of the Department.

142. Public primary Schools and Pupils.—We give below, at the threshold of our detailed enquiry into the various departmental systems, two comparative statements, of which the first exhibits the number of public primary schools in India on 31st March 1882 as contrasted with the number existing in 1871; while the second classifies the pupils by race and creed. These statements will frequently be referred to in the course of this Chapter.

TABLE | —Comparative Statement showing the number of Primary Schools existing in India ff- at the end of the official years 1870-71 and 1881-82.

PROVINCES.	Class of Schools.	1870-71.			1881-82.			REMARKS.
		Number of schools.*	Number of pupils.	Average number of pupils in each school.	Number of schools.*	Number of pupils.	Average number of pupils in each school.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
MADRAS . . . j	Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools	7	741	44	1,263	46,975	37	<p>a The numbers enclosed in square brackets are included under secondary schools,</p> <p>f The figures as returned by the Provincial Committee. The Report on Public Instruction for 1870-71 returns a large number of these schools as un-aided institutions.</p> <p>f An estimate only.</p> <p>§ As estimated in 1881. Later estimates would add about 6,500 to the number.</p> <p>j] Inclusive of the pupils in the secondary departments of Tahsili and Halkabandi Schools.</p> <p> Exclusive of 37 schools in Ajmir with 1,116 pupils. At the end of 1881-82 the schools in Ajmir were 59 in number and were attended by 2,309 pupils.</p> <p>** The apparent decrease in this class of institutions since 1870-71 is due to differences in the classification of schools in the two years here compared.</p>
	Aided Schools.....	783	67,496	24	7,414	204,140	27	
	Unaided Schools under inspection				5,809	109,528	19	
	Primary classes in High and Middle Schools and in Colleges	«[t>50L	0 [21,465	! <33]			« « «	
	TOTAL	2,800	68,237	24	14,486	360,643	24	
BOMBAY . . . j	Government and Local Fund Schools.	2,307	129,653	56	3,800	243,959	64	
	Aided Schools.....	44	2,945	66	196	13,902	70	
	Unaided Schools under inspection .	387	27^,030	69	1,331	74,827	56	
	TOTAL	2,738	159,628	58	5,338	332,688	62	
BENGAL . . . ^	Government Schools	47	1,627	34	28	916	32	
	Aided Schools.....	2,439	66,417	27	47,374	835,435	17	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	26	499	19	4,376	62,038	14	
	Primary classes in High and Middle Schools.....	a[r, Si2]	a[§57>945]	«[3i]	£[1,891]	a [94.3	<*[49	
	TOTAL	2,5*2	68,543	27	51,778	898,389	17	
NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES AND OUDH. (Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools	+4,3^7	1)148,126	34	5,561	197,060	35	
	Aided Schools.....	143	5,126	35	243	15,019	61	
	Unaided Schools under inspection				4^	1,159	28	
	TOTAL	4,48<>	153,252	34	5,845	213,238	36	
PUNJAB . . . j	Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools	1*254	50,547	40	1,549	88,251	57	
	Aided Schools	501	18,950	37	□□278	14,616	53	
	Unaided Schools under inspection							
	TOTAL	1,755	69,497	39	1,827	102,867	56	
Central Provinces .	Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools	795	41,404	52	894	55,745	62	
	Aided Schools	423	20,792	51	368	18,786	51	
	Unaided Schools under inspection .	668	14,203	21	86	3,206	57	
	TOTAL	1,886	7*5,399	40	1,348	77,737	57	
Assam	Government Schools				7	187	26	
	Aided Schools.....	/ The statistics for Assam are included in those for Bengal.			1,256	35,643	25	
	Unaided Schools under inspection				88	2,352	26	
	TOTAL	1,351	38,182	28	
COORG I	Government Schools	32	1 >433	46	57	2,978	52	
	Aided Schools	3	108	36	3	91	30	
	Unaided Schools under inspection							
	TOTAL	35	1>541	44	60	3,069	51	
H , A. Districts. j	Government and Local Fund Schools .	297	10,223	34	467	27,844	59	
	Aided Schools				209	4,2X2	20	
	Unaided Schools under inspection				207	2,672	12	
	TOTAL	2 9 7	10,223	34	883	34,728	39	
1	TOTAL FOR INDIA ff.	16,473	607,320	36	82,916	8,061,541	24	

* Including both Boys' and Girls' Schools.
ff Excluding British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

TABLE 2.—Classification of Pupils in Primary Schools " by Race or Creed for the official year 1881-82 •

PROVINCES.	Class of institutions.	Hindus	Muhamadans	Sikhs.	Parsis.	Christians	Others.	TOTAL.	REMARKS.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
MADRAS.	Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools, Boys						!	44,552,122	c Including Christians and Europeans and Eurasians attending schools in Natives of India.
	Aided Schools, Boys		! :	192,450	
	Unaided Schools under inspection, Boys		! :	102,944	
	Total Boys	289,448	4,005	3,373	300	340,278	
BOMBAY.	Government and Local Fund Schools, Girls	199,449	28,211		1,648	957	398	233,663	*4,296 of these are girls. 158 of these are boys.
	Aided Schools, Girls	9,807	1,117		250	37	85	11,396	
	Unaided Schools under inspection, Girls	6,074	1,293		1,543	505	149	9,564	
	Total Girls	65,416	30,331	...	3,577	1,521	3,086	108,937	
BENGAL.	Government Schools	<541,454	217,216		...	3,427	18,840	880,937	*30,744 of these are girls. 123 of these are boys.
	Aided Schools	14,580	1,570			1,182	120	17,453	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	641,454	287,216	...		3,427	18,840	880,937	
	Total	1,207,448	506,002	...		8,036	18,960	1,714,450	
North-West Provinces & Oudh	Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools, Boys	163,037	30,137			93	107	193,373	□ These include children of sweepers, charmers, &c., who are returned in the census as Hindus.
	Aided Schools, Boys	2,560	1,126			1		3,687	
	Unaided Schools under inspection, Boys	6,907	1,891			1,392	33	10,222	
	Total Boys	172,504	32,154	...		1,426	140	204,124	
PUNJAB.	Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools, Boys	44,502	33,751	6,965		37	139	84,394	□ These include children of sweepers, charmers, &c., who are returned in the census as Hindus.
	Aided Schools, Boys	1,360	2,334	173		257	713	4,577	
	Unaided Schools under inspection, Boys	4,896	2,803	597		253	121	8,367	
	Total Boys	50,758	38,888	7,735		647	973	93,660	
Central Provinces	Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools, Boys	47,398	4,014	...		12	1,645	53,069	*Ind use of Goods, Kols and other aboriginal tribes; also of Parsis and Sikhs.
	Aided Schools, Boys	2,543	86			7	40	3,676	
	Unaided Schools under inspection, Boys	15,518	1,223			383	1,148	18,272	
	Total Boys	65,464	5,323	...		492	3,833	75,099	
Assam.	Government Schools	100	7			1	79	187	*413 of these are girls. 38 of these are boys.
	Aided Schools	26,313	4,946			653	2,700	34,511	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	524	3			266	340	1,132	
	Total	27,837	5,456	...		920	3,119	36,332	
COORG.	Government Schools	2,871	86			21		3,978	*305 of these are girls.
	Aided Schools	8	1			56		65	
	Unaided Schools under inspection			24		30	
	Total	2,879	87	...		77		3,036	
HAIDARABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS	Government and Local Fund Schools, Boys	24,262	3,945		191	25		28,603	□ Including 730 pupils attending 24 middle schools, which cannot be separated from the returns. The total male population was 2 only. 39,874 of these are girls. 174 of these are boys.
	Aided Schools, Boys	266	54			2		322	
	Unaided Schools under inspection, Boys	3,831	263			13		4,107	
	Total Boys	28,359	4,262	...		40		33,021	
TOTAL FOR INDIA		1,545,000	363,881	7,560	3,536	3,784	1,252	1,924,953	
Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed.		2.04	0.57	0.06	0.09	0.05	0.02	0.08	

• Excluding schools for Europeans and Eurasians and all schools in Ajmir and British Burma, and in Satire States that administer their own system of education.

143. Madras: primary System—The early history of primary education in Madras offers a marked contrast to its later development. The present system, which rests mainly on private enterprise, without altogether neglecting the direct instrumentality of the Department, was founded in 1868, consolidated in 1871, and has been systematically persevered in and improved from that date until now. It differs from that of Bombay in the large support which it gains from private enterprise and in its liberal patronage of indigenous schools; again it differs from that of Bengal in its more practical and successful insistence upon improvement and upon raising aided schools out of their traditional indifference to a level with the progressive wants of society. The policy laid down from the first has been steadily adhered to without interruption. Prior to the year 1868 Madras could not boast that success had attended its early efforts. Nearly forty years before that date, Sir Thomas Monro had devised a scheme of establishing District and taluka schools based upon the indigenous schools of the country, but his plan was abandoned in 1836. Apart from the check which this abandonment involved, other influences were at work to retard the progress of primary education. From Bengal by its example, and from England by direct instructions, pressure was brought to bear on Madras in favour of extending higher education. The theory of “downward filtration” obtained complete ascendancy; and even in 1841 the President of the University Board, in an address to Lord Elphinstone, gave expression to the popular view when he remarked that “the light must touch the mountain tops before it could pierce to the levels and depths.” Mr. Thomas, who was a few years later Chief Secretary and Member of the Council of Education, entirely disapproved of these sentiments, and argued in favour of the broader basis of solid education through the native languages. No action was, however, taken to carry out these views, and when the Despatch of 1854 reached Madras, a few elementary schools in the Hill tracts of Ganjam and in Rajamahendri, and a paltry expenditure in Ohingleput, Nellore, and Tanjore, represented the attention which the State had paid to the instruction of the masses. Ten years later, when Mr. Monteath’s note of 1865-66 was written, primary State education still lagged behind. But about this period the grant-in-aid rules were under revision, and a new scheme for result-grants sanctioned in the following year came into force on 1st January 1868. From this date primary education made rapid and continuous progress. In the first year 494 schools were aided on the system of payment by results, in the next 1,065, and in the third 1,606. In 1871 there were only 17 Government primary schools chiefly in the hill tracts of Ganjam, attended by 741 pupils. The aided and inspected schools were 2,783 with 67,496 pupils, while the high and middle schools had 21,465 pupils in their primary classes. Thus there were 89,702 children under primary instruction, in Madras.

144. Madras: Progress of primary Education.—These results, though showing a considerable advance, offered an unfavourable contrast to Bombay with its 160,000 pupils, and even to the backward Central Provinces with more than 76,000. But measures had already been taken which enabled Madras to effect a change that is almost without example in its extent and thoroughness. The Government of India had instituted enquiries, which were suggested by a Note on the state of education in India for 1866-67, prepared by Mr. A. P. Howell. Of that Note the Government of India remarked, on the 30th April 1868, that its clear exposition of the educational systems, as introduced and worked under the different Governments, enabled the Supreme Government to judge of the comparative merits of the several methods adopted in different parts of the country. In forwarding a copy of the Note to the Madras Government, the Governor General in Council on 27th May 1868 called the

attention of the local Government to the necessity, already insisted upon in the Despatch of 1859, of providing from local rates for the means of extending elementary education amongst the agricultural classes. The cesses levied in Bombay and in the North-Western Provinces were held up as a model, the failure of the Madras Act VI of 1863 was distinctly recorded, and the Local Government was called on to initiate measures for the attainment of the object in view. That Government complied, and Act IV of 1871 provided the local rates by which alone the full development of the grant-in-aid system could be secured. It may also be mentioned that in the same year the Municipal Act III of 1871 gave urban committees power to expend municipal funds on education. Provision was also made for associating local boards with the District officers in the administration of the school funds then created. The effect was almost magical. With sufficient ways and means not merely to make a start but to carry out a policy, it was at once discovered that Madras had not so much to create an educational system as to incorporate into its system a network of indigenous schools, and to turn to account a wealth of missionary, and in due course of time of native, enterprise not surpassed in any other part of India. The development was continuous and the conditions of aid were steadily maintained. The annual returns mark a regular improvement, which though interrupted by the occurrence of severe famine was not ultimately checked. The local boards yielding to the advice of the Inspectors of schools, adopted the system which had been successfully introduced in 1868, and aided private schools in preference to opening schools of their own. But where private enterprise was backward, they did not neglect the other alternative. By these means, the pupils in the public primary system had risen in 1881-82 to 360,643 pupils, nearly 87 per cent of whom were in aided or inspected schools, whilst the rest were being instructed in 1,263 departmental schools. Thus had the attendance in primary schools been quadrupled in eleven years by the combined effects of an adequate fund supplied by local rates and of the grant-in-aid system working under favourable conditions. The indigenous schools brought under control, and estimated by one witness as constituting one-half of the whole number of primary schools, readily conformed to the rules of the Department. Printed books were generally used, and arithmetic was taught according to the system in force in departmental schools. Although the old traditional method of teaching has not been superseded, the division of pupils into classes, and other European methods, were introduced. Additional subjects, such as geography, history, sanitation, and agriculture, were taught; and instruction was sensibly raised above the traditional indigenous course to a standard more calculated to secure the peasant classes in the possession of their proprietary rights. Above all, the qualifications of the teachers were greatly improved and trained men took the places of the inefficient indigenous schoolmasters. The history of the progress thus glanced at is given at length in the Madras Provincial Report, from which the following extract is taken; * It is a noteworthy fact, and one which cannot be ignored or explained away, that the Districts whose towns in the aggregate have more than 5 per cent, of their population, or roughly one child in three—or if girls are excluded, about two boys in three—under instruction, are Districts the education of whose town population has been mainly left to private effort. In the town of Coimbatore, where the Government have never established a school, there are probably at least four boys in every five reading in school. In Tinnevely, in Palamcotta, Masulipatam, and Nellore the proportion is higher.”

145. Bombay: primary System.—The early history of primary education in Bombay is sketched in Mr. Howell's Note for 1870-71* p&gs 62, and related at length in the Provincial Report. There, as in Madras, the " downward filtration

theory " was at first strongly held by the Board of Education over which Sir Erskine Perry presided for nine years up to **1852**. His view was that it was *te* better to concentrate on the higher education of a few the strength of a grant '5 that was quite inadequate to make any impression on the masses. But even during his direction of the Board's proceedings, the claims of the uneducated masses found powerful advocates. Protests against the neglect of those claims were emphatically renewed after his retirement; and Government, while increasing its general grant to the Board by Rs. 50,000, announced its policy of organising throughout the Presidency a general scheme of village education. Besides general considerations of the duty of the State to provide education for the masses, there were in Bombay, as in the North-Western Provinces, special reasons arising out of the liberal policy of Government in the matter of revenue administration which induced the local Government to be anxious to improve as well as to extend elementary education amongst the peasant proprietary of the Presidency. Their efforts were from the first successful. Thus on the constitution of the State Department in 1855, while in Madras the few elementary schools were confined to a small tract of country, there were in the Bombay Presidency upwards of 240 vernacular schools managed by the State and educating more than 19,000 children. For some years the village schools were maintained on the partially self-supporting system, which continued until 1858. Under this system the State paid half the master's salary, and the people the other half, as well as all the contingent expenses of the school. In 1858 the Government of India raised objections to the plan adopted, and a further extension of the system was forbidden. At this period the indigenous schools in the whole Presidency were said to number 2,386 with 70,500 pupils. After careful consideration, both of the objections raised in 1858 to the partially self-supporting system, and of the insufficient number of the indigenous schools, the Local Government laid the foundation of the present departmental system which has been steadily maintained without interruption up to the present time. There is now no other Province of India with so large a proportion of the male population under instruction in primary schools, strictly so called, which are maintained, aided, or inspected by the State. One of the distinctive features of the Bombay system is its almost exclusive reliance on departmental schools, managed under official direction by local committees, and maintained chiefly at the cost of local rates supplemented by grants from provincial revenues. Another feature is the systematic and successful attempt made to raise the standard of instruction, instead of limiting it more closely by the traditional wants of the people, according to the plan so strongly insisted upon elsewhere. This elevation of standard has been effected by two methods, which are in marked contrast with the Bengal plan. It will be shown that in Bengal the primary education of the middle and educated classes of society in towns is chiefly conducted in secondary schools, while in Bombay every class of society attending the public schools passes through the ordinary primary school. If the higher castes can give a tone to society, and if the example of the educated can stimulate the backward classes, then in the Bombay system this stimulus is provided by associating every section of the community in the class-rooms of the primary school. It must not, however, be supposed that the peasantry form a small minority; on the contrary there were nearly 132,000 children of the cultivating classes in the cess schools alone in 1881*82. It follows from the double function thus imposed on the primary schools that they have been organically connected with secondary schools, in order that the boys who proceed to higher education may be properly grounded. In this there was an obvious danger of sacrificing the interests of those whose education was to terminate in the primary school, but against this danger the necessary precautions were taken.

The primary school ought according to the Bombay system to be the village school as well as the preparatory school for secondary education. It ought to be an end in itself as well as a means to an end. While, therefore, the course of the primary school was arranged so as to lead in one direction to the high school, it was extended in another so as to afford the most thorough elementary education. Accordingly, to the course of the primary school, at the point where it joined on to that of the secondary school, two standards were added, and the highest of these was adopted as a test of admission to the lower grades of the public service. The number of pupils who go up for examination in standards V and VI is increasing every year. Their popularity has never been questioned, and throughout the evidence given to the Commission by Bombay witnesses there is an entire absence of those complaints about teaching over the heads of the people which have been loudly expressed in some other parts of India. One witness, the present Prime Minister of Baroda, commended that in the Northern Division, which is remarkable for its educational activity, the standards should again be raised.

146. **Bombay: financial Provision for primary education.** The successful maintenance of the present standards involves two conditions: first, that the course of instruction should not go beyond the wants of the people; and secondly, that there should be a permanent and sufficient financial provision. To the latter point early attention was directed. In 1862 the appropriation of municipal funds to education was legalised; and in 1864 an education cess was levied on the land, which produced in the first year about Rs. 2,80,000. Under these influences the number of primary schools in 1865 was raised to 925 with 61,729 pupils. The cess was at first collected on a voluntary basis, and nothing can better illustrate the popularity of the educational system than the readiness with which the contribution was paid. In Sind the collections were legalised by Act VIII of 1865, but it was not until 1869 that they received the sanction of law in the rest of the Presidency. Since that date the educational portion of local fund income has been administered by local committees, and as far as possible the precise amount raised in each taluka is expended in that taluka. The Government contributes liberally from provincial revenues towards the cost of the urban schools, and adds to the local income administered by the committees whatever assignment it can spare. As Mr. Ghatfield, the Director of Public Instruction, lately reported, "the local fund schools in Bombay are financially less dependent upon Government than board-schools in England. In England the Government grant for results is larger than the rate collections, whilst the fixed Government grant in Bombay is only one-third of the rate or cess collections." The main distinction between the administration of the local rates in Bombay and in Northern India is that in Bombay the rates are paid direct to the credit of the local committees, not only without any deduction, but with the addition of the provincial contribution. Any unexpended balance also lapses to the local fund. In the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab the local rates are first credited to provincial revenues, from which an assignment is made to the local committees, but if the assignment is not spent, it lapses to the provincial treasury. Moreover, in some parts of Northern India no provincial assignment, other than that from local rates, is made for elementary vernacular education in rural tracts. In Bombay, therefore, the school fund is inviolable, and cannot be diverted from elementary education. It may be spent in towns or in villages at the discretion of the committees, but it must be spent on primary schools. Owing to the advantages which a secure income afforded, Bombay gained a great start on the Southern Presidency, into which a similar measure was not introduced until many years later. In 1871 there were 159,628 children under instruction in

2>738 primary schools in Bombay, while in Madras there were only 89,702 pupils in primary schools including the primary classes of high and middle schools.

147. **Bombay: Progress of primary Education**—In the next ten years the two Presidencies were to compete on equal terms so far as finance was concerned. But the Bombay Government adhered to its original policy, while in Madras education was extended by stimulating private enterprise and by incorporating and improving the existing indigenous schools. The result was that by the beginning of 1882 the relative position of the two Presidencies was reversed. The Bombay system was still instructing a larger proportion of the male population, but while its numbers had rather more than doubled since 1871, those in Madras had been quadrupled. The difference in their relative progress was not merely numerical: 87 per cent, of the 360,643 primary scholars in Madras were in aided or inspected schools, while 73 per cent, of the 332,688 pupils in Bombay were attending departmental schools, exclusive of a large number of pupils in inspected schools, chiefly departmental schools in Native States. The annual reports bear constant testimony to the fact that the demand for cess schools has far outstripped the ability of the Department to supply them. If only for this reason, it is desirable that greater encouragement should be given to the indigenous schools. But it must be noticed that the Bombay indigenous institutions have repeatedly declined to submit to inspection on the terms hitherto offered to them unless substantial aid is given to them. It must not therefore be assumed that the incorporation of indigenous schools into the departmental system will be as economical an arrangement as that in Bengal will presently be shown to have been. It is unnecessary here to anticipate the course of this history by describing the progress made in providing trained teachers and laying down definite standards of examination, measures which have done so much to keep up the efficiency of the State schools: But in one respect the development of primary instruction in Bombay has tended in a direction which has been observed with regret. The local fund cess is contributed mainly by the rural community, and the municipalities have not availed themselves, so far as was hoped, of the permission which the law allows them of assigning municipal funds for the support of primary schools. The result has been that the greater share of the provincial assignment, which ought to be distributed between the towns and villages rateably in proportion to local resources, has been somewhat unfairly spent on the town schools. This result was anticipated in 1870, when the Director of Public Instruction, Mr. Peile, warmly advocated the imposition of a compulsory rate for education on the town population. But the Local Government was unwilling, in view of the income tax and of the license tax subsequently imposed, to increase the burden of taxation. The inequality has therefore not yet been redressed. But the subject demands notice here, because it is the only complaint against the Bombay system, other than the alleged neglect of the indigenous schools and of private effort in primary education, which has been pressed by witnesses upon the attention of the Commission.

148. **Bengal: System of primary Schools and primary Classes.**—

At the very outset it is necessary to explain a feature in the Bengal system of education which renders difficult a comparison of its results under any class of education with those of Bombay, or of any other Province that has not adopted the same plan. In Bengal each class of school is in theory shaped to meet the wants of a different section of the population. Thus the high and middle schools are intended to be complete in themselves, and they contain boys in their lower classes who are only receiving elementary education. In

These schools, which are in no sense of the word schools for the masses, the instruction given in the lower or primary classes is merely the elementary stage of an education which advances to the standard of a high school. It is also more expensive than that given in strictly primary schools. For whereas the average annual cost to the State of educating each pupil in the ordinary village school is only 10 annas per annum, the cost in the primary class of a secondary school is three times as high. Each description of school, in fact, is intended to provide for the complete education of a different class of society, and the standard consequently differs with the requirements of the stratum of society using the school. In Bombay the town as well as the village primary school is devised to give the best possible primary education to all classes of society. The son of the cultivator, who has no prospect of ever going to a secondary school, reads in the same class with the Brahman boy who is destined to go up for the Matriculation examination. In Bengal the former would be content with the village school and a much less ambitious course, while the latter would in places where a high school existed learn his lessons in a different class-room of the same school in which he would continue to prosecute his studies up to the University Entrance examination. Unless this fundamental difference of system is constantly borne in mind, a comparison between the statistics of primary and of secondary education in Bengal and those of other Provinces will be very misleading. For instance, the quality of the instruction conveyed in a Bengal indigenous school must not be judged by the standard required by the well-to-do classes of urban society who attend a cess school in Bombay, but who in Bengal would be found in the lower classes of a secondary school. On the other hand, the cost of education in a Bombay primary school, which performs a function, must not be compared with that in a Bengal village school, the majority of whose pupils will advance no further. It would be to the Bengal system, to raise the standard of instructional, a path to the requirements of the simple village folk. The large primary schools in Bengal take in primary education may be inferred from the following figures. In high schools 39 per cent., in middle English schools 78 per cent., and in middle vernacular institutions 83 per cent, of the pupils are returned as being in the primary stage. In the rest of India these pupils under a different system would swell the ranks of attendance in primary schools, but in Bengal and Assam they are classed as pupils attending high and middle schools respectively.

149. Advantages and Disadvantages of the dual System.—The question has been raised by the Bengal Government, “whether there may not be a certain waste of power and needless expenditure of funds in the reproduction in each higher grade school of every class of instruction given in all below.” The Lieutenant-Governor observes that “where various grades of schools co-exist in the same locality, it seems a matter for doubt whether the competition of the present system produces more benefit than would follow from a more definite and consistent division of labour.” The attention of the Commission was not invited to this question until the discussions on primary education had been closed, and it was too late to find time for its consideration. But it is a question to which incidental reference was made, and we may state the arguments advanced on both sides. Those who support the Bengal system point out that to speak of “the reproduction in each higher grade school of every class of instruction given in all below” is to convey an inaccurate idea of that system, the special feature of which is that the courses of study in corresponding stages of primary, middle, and high school, are altogether distinct. They argue that the present arrangement of attaching a full primary

department to middle and high schools, and of keeping the strictly primary schools distinct, is in full accordance with the definition of elementary education accepted in England, which is so framed as to exclude not only all schools in which a high fee is charged, but also the lower departments of schools teaching the lowest standard. Again, in the Report of the School Enquiry Commission to Her Majesty, 1868, the following recommendations were made regarding the classification of schools: "Education as distinguished from direct preparation for employment can be classified as that which is to stop at about fourteen, that which is to stop at about sixteen, and that which is to continue till eighteen or nineteen; and for convenience sake we shall call these the third, second, and first grade of education respectively." It is obvious that these distinctions correspond roughly, though by no means exactly, to the gradations of society. Accordingly, in those Provinces, namely, Bengal and Assam, in which this system prevails, a marked distinction is drawn between "primary instruction" and "the primary stage of higher instruction; and pupils in the latter stage are returned as belonging to secondary, and not to primary schools. As the pupils in primary schools, and those in the primary classes of secondary schools, aim at a different class of education, and belong to different grades of society, it is both economical and logical to recognise this distinction at the outset of their educational career. The instruction suited to the earlier stages of a course which is to continue for nine or ten years, and to end in the University, is not that which will best enable a village boy to take care of his own interests in his own station of life after three or four years at school. By instituting separate schools with distinct courses of instruction, village boys come to regard the "village school course as complete in itself; by uniting them and thus compelling all pupils, whatever their future destination, to pass through the same elementary course, the mischievous tendency to regard primary education as a fragment of higher education, and a stepping-stone to it is confirmed. The division of labour is most consistently carried out when this distinction is maintained; and no competition can exist between schools teaching different courses and levying very different rates of fees. Boys in the primary department of a high school pay fees at the rate of one or two rupees a month, and sometimes more; that is, ten times as high as the fee in a primary school. They pay for better supervision, better discipline, a higher tone, and the prestige of reading in an advanced school. This system therefore most effectually carries out the requirement of the Despatches, that those who are able to pay should gradually be induced to pay more towards the cost of their education. Consequently the lower classes of such schools pay largely for the cost of the upper; and hence in Bengal, there are more high schools, aided and unaided, under private management than in all the rest of India put together. If the high schools were limited to the upper classes reading for the Entrance examination, there would be an immediate diminution in the fees-receipts of all high schools, and the effect on private enterprise would be that the great majority of non-departmental schools would have to be closed through inability to pay their way. The great unaided colleges of Calcutta support themselves largely by the surplus fees of their school departments. Lastly, it is understood, that in Bengal, where this system has prevailed from the first, there has been no opposition to it from any quarter of the Province, and that it has received the cordial support of private managers. The advantages of the existing system were fully discussed by the Government of Bengal, in its letter to the Government of India No. 1663, dated 12th June 1876, and No. 177, dated 20th February 1879, where it was urged that any change in the existing system would be little short of disastrous. Such are the arguments by which the Bengal system is supported. On the other hand, those of us who object to

it, assail it on the grounds both of finance and of administration- It is urged that there must be a waste of, money and of power, no matter how carefully the system is organised, in employing the superior masters of a secondary school to teach children elementary knowledge; and further that it becomes impossible to distinguish the cost of secondary from that of primary education. In particular the real cost of educating in Bengal a secondary pupil becomes obscured when, as shown above, 39 per cent, of the attendance in high schools, 78 of that in middle English schools, and 83 of that in middle vernacular schools belong to the primary classes. *When* the cost of educating each pupil in each of these classes of schools is divided by the average monthly attendance, the cost is unfairly diminished in comparison with the cost of educating a pupil of the same class in other Provinces. This matter will appear more clearly when the Commission has to deal with the subject of grants-in-aid and withdrawal in Chapter VIII. Again, it is argued that it is an advantage to associate all primary pupils in the same class of institution, and that defects in the system of primary education are thus brought to light and the progress of society is reflected in the progressive standards of primary education. To this last argument it is replied that the Bengal system of primary education seeks above all other objects to keep down the standard to the requirements of the masses, and not to raise it by considering the wants of the well-to-do classes who are not* properly speaking, the masses. In this conflict of views, and considering that no opportunity was given to the Commission of arriving at a definite conclusion on the subject, we have refrained from expressing an opinion. We consider that the matter must be settled by each Local Government. At the same time we must observe that although Bengal and Assam are not the only Provinces in which primary classes are attached to secondary schools, yet it is only in these two Provinces that the pupils attending such classes and the cost of their education are shown under secondary instruction. We would also call attention to our Recommendation given in Chapter V, on secondary education, which is as follows: "That high and middle schools be united in the returns under the single term 'secondary schools/ and that the classification of students in all secondary schools, according to the stage of instruction, be provided for in a separate Table, showing the stage of instruction, whether primary, middle, or upper, of pupils in all schools of primary and secondary education."

150. Bengal: History of primary Education in four Periods.—Both in Madras and in Bombay, from the time that the Government seriously undertook to extend primary education, its progress under different systems has proceeded upon uniform lines of policy. In Bengal, on the contrary, various methods have from time to time been adopted; and it is necessary to **consider** the subject under four divisions. These divisions necessarily overlap* and *when* one system was being diligently followed, others *were* entirely disregarded. Apart from the expediency of applying several methods to the solution of the difficult and important task of infusing a new life into the indigenous system without destroying its vitality or usefulness, there were special obstacles in Bengal which from the outset stood in the way of any sustained policy. Primary education had no financial basis of its own. It depended not on local rates, but on the share of provincial and imperial contributions which could be spared for it. The first division in the history we are about to consider commences with 1855 and ends with 1862, During these years the "circle system" was in force. From 1863 to 1872 the "Normal school system" was persevered in, but its very success proved the prelude to its **downfall**. From 1872 to 1875, Sir George Campbell's policy was pursued on the basis of a system of stipends and Normal classes. But that system also in its

rapid development proved to be too costly, and was thought to be in other respects unsuitable; and while the general policy of its founder was continued in many particulars, the stipendiary system was generally exchanged for that form of the system of payment by results which is still maintained.

151. Bengal: First Period from 1855 to 1862.—We have already referred in Chapter II. to the enquiries prosecuted by Mr. Adam in 1835 and the views entertained by Macaulay as President of the General Committee of Public Instruction in Calcutta. But no systematic or widespread attempts to work upon the indigenous schools of Bengal were commenced before 1855. In that year the “ circle system ” was introduced, under which improvement was aimed at by employing and paying certain State pandits, each of whom was attached to a circle of three or four village schools under their own gurus or masters. The gurus received grants equal to those earned by their pupils, every one of whom on attaining a certain standard was rewarded according to his progress. It was this system to which reference was made by the Court of Directors in paragraph 21 of their Despatch of 1859, when they wrote “this plan has so far “ been found very successful, and it is proposed to extend it to others of the “ educational divisions.” It was so extended especially in the Eastern and Central Divisions of Bengal, and in 1860-61, 172 schools giving instruction to 7,731 pupils had been brought under improvement. But it was felt that even this progress was too slow, and that it would take an almost indefinite time to improve the vast network of indigenous schools. While therefore a policy of improvement was not abandoned, it was sought to secure a greater quantity and not inferior quality of primary instruction by other methods.

152. Bengal: Second Period from 1862 to 1872—Accordingly, in 1862, Sir John Peter Grant decided to substitute a system of District training schools and fixed stipends for the “ circle system.” Under the new scheme, which was generally called the “ Normal school system,” a guru, or his relative or probable successor, was sent to a Normal school with a stipend of Rs. 5 a month, under a written engagement with the village that after a year’s training he would be received as the teacher with a guaranteed income of not less than Rs. 5. The course of studies at the training school included reading, writing, and arithmetic, as well as accounts and mensuration up to the full indigenous standard. Elementary geography and history and the art of teaching were also taught. Babu Bhoodeb Mookerjee, an experienced Inspector of Schools, who devised and carried out the system, estimated that it would be possible in fourteen years to get 1,000 schools supplied with improved teachers. The plan was in entire accordance with the orders of the Court of Directors, which had dwelt much on the want of competent masters for all classes of schools. After a trial of two years there were 377 improved schools educating 12,000 pupils, and the new scheme was extended into six more Districts, of which Midnapur was one. Meanwhile the “ circle system ” and other plans were not neglected. That the “ Normal school system ” succeeded in raising the tone of the indigenous schools was made evident by complaints loudly expressed in 1866 that the village schools were rising above the traditional level of the wants of the classes for whom they were intended. It was alleged that they had ceased to be schools for the masses. On the other hand it was contended that the indigenous schools of Bengal were never meant to be exclusively schools for the masses, whose wants, however, were adequately supplied by them. A comparison instituted at this time between the attendance in the halkabandi schools of the Agra circle in the North-Western Provinces and the palhsalas of Burdwan in Bengal showed that in the former only 39 per cent, of the pupils belonged to the labouring classes against 67 per cent, in the latter.

In the next year the constantly recurring difficulty of sustained progress was demonstrated by the Orissa famine. Educational grants were at that period provided from imperial revenues. In consequence of the famine these grants were reduced and no further provision was sanctioned for the development of the Normal school system. In this condition of affairs the Supreme Government interposed. It has already been noticed that the Note on the educational system of India prepared by Mr. Howell induced the Government of India to call the attention of the Madras Government to the need of placing the development of primary education upon a more secure financial basis by the imposition of local rates. The events which we have reviewed afforded indications of a similar necessity in Bengal. Notwithstanding constant interruptions, something had undoubtedly been done to improve the indigenous schools, but the progress was felt to be insufficient. The old doctrine of "downward filtration," which had been accepted in Calcutta, still found powerful supporters, and so late as 1865 the Director of Public Instruction had written as follows : "The education of the lower orders of society should assuredly not be neglected ; but it is a primary condition of the spread of education among all classes that full provision should *first* be made for the education of that class on which depends the education of all the rest." While this doctrine influenced the Head of the Department, it was natural that the weight of financial pressure should fall on primary education. One remedy would have been to adopt the plan followed in Northern India and in Bombay, and to create a special local fund for the extension of education amongst the poorer classes of the community. Accordingly on 25th April 1868 a letter was addressed to the Bengal Government by the Government of India which contained the following contrast: "In Bengal, with a population that probably exceeds 40 millions, the total number of pupils in the lower Government and aided schools was in 1866-67 only 39,104. In the North-Western Provinces, with a population under 30 millions, the number of pupils in schools of a similar class was 125,394. In Bombay, with a population of 16 millions, the number was 79,189. In the Punjab, with a population of 15 millions, it was 62,355. In the Central Provinces, with a population of 8½ millions, it was 22,600. Nor does there seem to be any probability that these proportions will hereafter become more favourable to Bengal, although the measures that have lately been taken for the encouragement of vernacular education by means of the system of training masters for indigenous schools have been more or less successful. The Council feels that it would not be right to evade any responsibility which properly falls on the Government, of providing at least an elementary education shall be made for the people of Bengal. He feels that this responsibility must be accepted as in other Provinces, not only as one of the highest duties which we owe to the country, but because among all the sources of difficulty in our administration, and of possible danger to the stability of our Government, there are few so serious as the ignorance of the people." It may be observed that the pupils in the primary classes of middle and high schools in Bengal were not included in the above comparison. The Government of India proceeded to impress upon the Lieutenant-Governor the necessity for imposing a compulsory rate on the landholders of Bengal in order to provide funds for the necessary extension of education. This proposal led to further correspondence, but owing to difficulties which it is beyond the scope of the Commission's enquiries to discuss, no local rate for education has up to the present time been imposed.

The want of adequate funds created insuperable difficulties in the way of further aiding and improving the indigenous schools. Still some progress was

reported. In 1868-69 the lower schools were returned as 1,797 with 52,688 pupils, besides 252 schools with 7,932 pupils under the grant-in-aid rules: of these, 1,393 with 40,500 pupils were improved pathsalas. The whole outlay on education from public funds was hardly more than one per cent, of the revenues of Bengal. *Two* years later the financial pressure again induced the local Government to reduce even this grant, and thus in 1870-71 the attendance at the lower schools had sunk to 52,231 pupils, besides 7,387 in the grant-in-aid schools. The general position of elementary education in Bengal in 1870-71 has been thus summarised by the present Director of Public Instruction : “ Some “ 2,000 village schools, with an average attendance of 26 pupils, had up to that “ date been taken in hand and supplied with trained teachers of a superior stamp “ to the old gurus of the country, whilst their course of instruction had been “ improved by the introduction of printed books and systematic arithmetic. In “ these, as in the pathsalas of the original type, boys of the middle and lower “ classes read together in nearly equal proportions, and consequently under the “ new system the masses were touched to some appreciable extent. The result “ of the introduction of trained teachers was that the course of instruction in “ many, perhaps in most cases, passed sooner or later beyond the simple standard “ at first proposed, and geography and history, together with the more advanced “ portions of arithmetic, were taught. The improved pathsalas were hardly dis- “ tinguishable from middle schools, and in order to identify them still more closely “ with that class, and to connect them with the general scheme of education, a “ system of scholarships was proposed for their benefit, though the concession was “ not yet granted. The teachers being paid fixed stipends, there was no systema- “ tic examination of scholars by prescribed standards for the purpose of determin- “ ing the amount of Government aid. The scheme was in its earlier years “ confined to nine Districts, but it was afterwards extended to the whole of Bengal. “ The indigenous schools of the country were recognised exactly in so far as “ they were taken up into this system.” The complete figures for 31st March 1871 for Bengal and Assam show that the organised system of primary education included 47 Government schools and 2,430 aided indigenous schools, which were altogether attended by 68,044 scholars. These figures excluded the boys attending primary classes in the middle and high schools, and 499 pupils in unaided schools under inspection. According to a calculation made in 1881 the number of scholars in secondary schools in Bengal, who in 1871 were attending primary classes in Government and aided schools, was 57,945, so that the total number of children, whether belonging to the upper or lower classes of society, whose primary education was assisted by the State, only amounted to 126,488,—a number which fell short of the attendance in the departmental schools of Bombay on the same date. But later and more complete enquiries show that about 6,500 more pupils in primary classes should be added to the estimates made in 1881, and with this addition the primary pupils in Bengal in 1871 numbered about 133,000 in all classes of schools known to the Department against about 160,000 in the similar institutions in Bombay.

153. Bengal: third Period: Sir G. Campbell's Resolution.—It need not therefore occasion surprise that a radical change of system was demanded. The proposal to create a local fund for education was not carried out, but Sir George Campbell, in a Resolution, dated 30th September 1872, declared it to be the great object of his administration to extend education amongst the masses, and he assigned four lakhs of rupees in order to make a commencement. The controversy, which had arisen regarding the upward growth of the improved pathsalas and the alleged conversion of schools for the masses into middle schools for the middle classes, gave a distinctive shape to the new policy, and the Bengal system is in very marked contrast to the systems which we have

already described. The aims of the Bengal Government were thus described: "The Lieutenant-Governor's wish is that the money now granted should be used to encourage and develop in rural villages proper indigenous education,—that is* reading, writing, and arithmetic, in the real indigenous language and character of each Province,.....Arithmetic and writing are the main subjects in which the people desire instruction, and many books will not be used; those that are used will be of the simplest and cheapest description.....It is quite clear that if rural schools are to be popular among ordinary villagers, the teachers must be of the old *gurumahasay* class, or must come from the same social and intellectual stratum. What is wanted is to teach ordinary village boys enough to enable them to take care of their own interests in their own station of life, as petty shop-keepers, small landholders, ryots, handicraftsmen, weavers, village headmen, boatmen, fishermen, and what not. It is beyond all things desirable not to impart at village schools that kind of teaching which, in a transition state of society, might induce boys to think themselves above manual labour or ordinary village work. To the really able boys at *pathsalas* opportunities for advancement will be offered by a chain of scholarships, the gainers of which can pass through the several grades of schools up to a University degree. One valuable means of providing that the ordinary *pathsala* course of study shall be confined to reading and writing the vernacular, to simple and mental arithmetic, and to a knowledge of mensuration, and the native system of land survey, will be a regulation that proficiency in these subjects only will be required for *pathsala* scholarships." By these means it was hoped that & gradual improvement of the indigenous schools would be secured without too rapid an alteration in their method or subjects of instruction. A more powerful influence in the same direction was supplied by the order that *no* grant to a village school should exceed Us. 5 a month. "Perhaps an allowance of Rs. 2 or Rs. 3 a month will in many cases suffice." It is important in view of subsequent events to remember that Sir George Campbell regarded an annual grant of Rs. 24 as the minimum grant which could secure the object at which he aimed.

That the present masters were inefficient was admitted, and the Resolution remarked that it would be useless to summon the very old schoolmasters to the Normal classes. "Old men of that stage have done much good in their time; they are popular with the villagers, and they manage their schools fairly well; if new acquirements or inodes of teaching are required, they will come with the next generation of village schoolmasters. But it will probably be desirable to bring into the Normal classes the younger and newly appointed village schoolmasters. For the present it will be necessary to perfect village schoolmasters in reading and writing fee printed character, of which (in Behaxat any rate) they are *oftm* ignot&nt; to instruct them in the best modes of teaching simple and mental arithmetic; to improve their knowledge and power of teaching mensuration and accounts; and to enable them to understand and teach the very simple text-books on these latter subjects." We shall presently see how far these hopes of passing future schoolmasters through the Normal classes have been realised: but the scheme of Sir George Campbell laid great stress upon the principle, and he proposed that a Normal school or training class should be established not only at the head-quarters of every District, but also at important sub-divisions. Great latitude was given to the District Magistrates to work out the details of the new scheme.

For the first time in the history of Bengal a fairly liberal assignment

was now given to primary education out of the provincial grant. There were no local rates, and therefore no local committees. Over the greater part of Bengal not a single school had to be created. In almost every village, it was asserted, a school of some sort existed. The task of the Magistrate was simple. He was to make his money go as far as he could, and transfer existing schools and scholars from the outer circle of an indigenous system into the inner circle of improved public primary schools. A gradual improvement of the indigenous schoolmasters had been aimed at under the "circle system," and continued under the "Normal school" or "pathsala system." It was also a leading feature in the new plan laid down by Sir George Campbell. But at the same time the Lieutenant-Governor had expressed fears of raising too rapidly the level of primary education, and had enjoined cautious progress in the training of masters. His caution was suggested not merely by the expense which such training involved, but by the consideration that a scheme built on the indigenous schools could not be secure unless the schools retained their popularity. Hasty improvement might prove fatal to their existence. So far was this principle carried that in the following year, 1873, the pathsalas that had been improved under former systems were, like those newly-aided, placed in the hands and under the control of District officers, with instructions to work them into the general system. The immediate result of these last orders may be briefly indicated. The improved pathsalas, which on the 31st March 1873 were 2,161, fell in the following years to 2,070, 1,878, and 1,745. This last was the number in 1876, when the two classes of schools were finally amalgamated, and the distinction disappeared from the returns. In fact, Sir George Campbell believed that the course in the improved pathsalas was unduly high, and that so far as they existed they were an obstacle to the spread of genuine primary education among the masses of the people. The warning that the teachers must at the outset deviate as little as possible from the accepted modes of teaching was renewed; and the Lieutenant-Governor in 1873 drew the attention of all District Committees, and Magistrates to the following extract from a report by Mr. S. C. Bayley, Commissioner of Patna: "I think it cannot be too much impressed on those who will have to work the new scheme that pathsalas are to remain pathsalas; that maps, books, and furniture are not the first requisites, neither are registers and a variety of subjects; but the essential point is to take advantage of such teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic as we find in existence, and endeavour gradually to improve it, not to substitute something (better perhaps, but wholly different) which the people do not want, or if they do want, cannot pay for." Mr. Bayley also bore testimony to the advantages of Normal schools for improving the teachers of indigenous schools.

154. Bengal: the Jffidnapnr System.—In the same year, 1873, the complaint, that the people refused to pay their accustomed fees to those gurus who received aid from Government, was made in all parts of Bengal. It was said that people argued that as the Government now paid the guru, there was no reason why they should contribute to his support to the same extent as before; and accordingly they reduced their contributions in some proportion to the amount which the guru received from Government. With this drawback, the newly aided pathsalas were declared on all hands to have been a great success, and to have been received by the people with much cordiality. The Midnapur system of aiding primary schools, which had already received the approval of Sir George Campbell, now came into prominent notice. It substituted the annual examination of pupils at fixed centres, together with rewards after examination, for inspection of schools *m situ* and regular monthly stipends. The

general subjects of examination were reading, writing, and written and mental arithmetic; and a reward of four annas was given for passing in each subject, besides eight annas for bazar and zamindari accounts, and one rupee for land-measuring. A rupee was also given to each indigenous schoolmaster for every quarterly return submitted. This system spread the amount of the District grant over a large circle of schools, and was much cheaper than that of fixed stipends. It was also reported to be most popular with the villagers, teachers, and pupils. Accordingly in the following year, 1874, attention was called to this scheme by Sir Richard Temple, who described it as the most effectual means of improving the indigenous schools, while maintaining them as places of genuine primary education. In fact, the outcry that the villagers habitually reduced their fees in proportion to the amount of the stipend had now become so loud, that it was considered necessary to devise means for checking the evil. The Midnapur system seemed to offer such a means. When aid was given, not in the form of monthly stipends, but as a distinct reward of success coming once a year, the people had much less excuse to retrench their payments. The system was also most economical. While the average rate of aid to each pathsala in Bengal was about Rs. 25 a year, little of which was thought to find its way to the pocket of the guru, in Midnapur the average yearly rate was Rs. 7 (in sums varying from Rs. 2 or Rs. 3 to Rs. 50), which at any rate was a clear gain to him. It was also maintained that the system involved no loss of efficiency. There was plenty of education, it was urged, abroad in Bengal; and if the standard of instruction in primary schools was kept strictly at Sir George Campbell's level, the gurus—no longer itinerant, as so many of them had formerly been, but stationary and having a new and definite incentive to improvement—could work up to it without difficulty. Those who could not do so were held to be incapable of improvement under any system, and must be gradually replaced in course of time by better educated men. All this had an obvious bearing on the Normal school system; and it will be shown in a subsequent paragraph how it soon led to a great reduction in the number of Normal schools.

The development of the aided pathsalas continued to advance on two different lines, some District officers being anxious to raise the schools to something like the old departmental level, while others rigidly confined even the best of them to Sir George Campbell's standard. In a Resolution dated January 1876, Sir Richard Temple, in again drawing attention to the success of the Midnapur scheme, remarked of a District in which the aided pathsalas had reached a high standard of excellence, that the system therein pursued did not appear to provide sufficiently for that education of the masses which it was the main object of the primary school fund to encourage and assist. It was nevertheless maintained that the policy of Government was not only to extend primary education among the lower classes of the people, especially the agricultural classes, but also to gradually improve its organisation and quality. The results attained by the system were summed up as follows: ^{CE} Primary “ education has for the first time been organised, regular hours and a fixed “ course of study have been introduced, and a commencement at least has “ been made of giving village schoolmasters the advantage of Normal school “ training. The result has been, not only that the standard of education “ has been improved and rendered progressive, but that these primary schools “ now attract classes of the population who previously scarcely came under “ instruction at all.⁵⁵

155. Bengal: fourth Period: farther Development of the System —

The tendency of the best of the aided pathsalas to rise above Sir George Campbell's

standard could not, however, be altogether checked; and it was known that a considerable number had reached a higher standard. It was also known that many of the old departmental pathsalas had, under the attractions of the primary scholarship and the disfavour with which they were often regarded by the District officer, come down to the primary standard. To meet both cases, Sir Richard Temple established in 1876 a new class of schools intermediate between the primary and middle, whose course was fixed by the creation of a new class of scholarships styled "lower vernacular." The standard for the scholarships was higher than that of the old departmental pathsalas, and included the Bengali language, the history and geography of Bengal, arithmetic, the 1st Book of Euclid, and elementary physics; and the scholarships were thrown open to all pathsalas of whatever origin. On a reference made by the Director as to the classification of these schools, it was ordered that "they should undoubtedly rank under secondary, and not under primary instruction." It has already been explained under what circumstances these lower vernacular schools have since been taken up into the primary system under the namp. of "upper primary schools." But neither at this nor at any other timp. was it intended that the new standard should be that at which the general body of primary schools should aim. This point is emphasised in the Resolution on the Educational Report for 1876-77, in which the following occurs: "It must be distinctly understood that it is not the policy of the Government to convert the pathsalas into cheap middle schools." The system of payment by results was again recommended for general adoption, as affording the best means of securing "the progress of the general body of pupils." The year had been signalled by a serious reduction in the primary grant arising from financial pressure; and the manner in which the primary schools had stood the test was pointed to as showing the soundness of the system. The following figures show the number of schools which up to this time had been established or incorporated into the organised system, excluding the attendance in the primary classes of secondary schools :-

Year.	Schools.	Scholars.
1870-71 . . .	2,486	68,044
1872-73	8,253	205,934
1873-74	12,229	303,437
1874-75	13,145	330,024
1875-76		357,233
1876-77	13,966	360,513

It appears from these figures that the number of schools aided from the primary grant did not increase very greatly during the last four years of the period to which it refers. Throughout the subsequent period it will be seen that ifce increase went on at a rapid and surprising rate. This was the natural Jsolt of the exhortations conveyed to District Magistrates in the successive Sesolutions of Government, urging them to substitute the cheaper system of payment by results for that of fixed stipends. In 1877.78 it was stated that

nearly half the Districts of Bengal had introduced the results system. The following figures show how rapid was the increase up to 1881-82, by which time it had practically superseded the other all over Bengal. They also show the cost to the State at which these numerical results were obtained :—

Year.	Schools.	Pupils.	Expenditure.
1876-77	13,966	360,513	. Ks. 3.75.00
1877-78	17,395	4 ^o 5,135	3.35.149
1878-79	24>354	489,518	3.99.200
1879*80	30,414	5 ⁸ 7.992	3.88.635
1880-81	37>5 ^o i	671,723	4.07.286
1881-82	47402	836, 35!	5.3<>.75

In the last year of this period, the primary grant had been increased by more than a lakh of rupees; but even with this addition the average grant to each aided school amounted to little more than Bs. 11 a year, while Sir George Campbell's lowest estimate of the assistance which any indigenous school should receive was Rs. 24 a year, and he laid down Its. 60 as a Tnarmmin grant. It may be observed that in no other Province of India is so small a grant given to the indigenous schools, and that in the adjoining Province of Assam the percentage of the cost of aided primary schools borne by public funds is 64 per cent, against 26 per cent, in Bengal. A further development of the system of payment by results was effected by the introduction of the "chief guru" system in 1877. The most competent and influential of the village teachers within a given area is selected by the Inspector as "chief guru" and in that capacity he has to supervise some 20 or 30 pathsalas lying within a radius of five miles from his school. He draws no salary from Government beyond what is paid by way of stipend to the pathsala which he teaches; but he receives a small allowance in proportion to the number of schools visited. He distributes his time between teaching his own pathsala, which is to serve as a model for the whole neighbourhood, and inspecting those subordinate to him, with which by long habit he is thoroughly familiar. He collects returns and is responsible for their accuracy; he summons pathsalas to central gatherings, distributes registers, books, and rewards to teachers or pupils, and generally acts as an intermediary agent between the Department and the village schools. The system supplies a close network of organisation, and has been found very effective in discovering the smallest village schools hid in the remotest corners of Districts. The object of Government being to raise and strengthen the indigenous system of education rather than to replace it by another of its own devising, the employment of agents drawn from the general body of gurus to assist it in carrying out that policy is believed to establish a more intimate connection between the Government and popular education; while it is hoped that it will strengthen the confidence of the people in the system and offer a definite object of ambition to the best of the indigenous teachers.

156. Bengal System: General View—The Bengal system of primary education is therefore based entirely upon the existing indigenous schools. Its

declared policy towards them has been, first, to win their confidence, and then, secondly, to cautiously and gradually introduce necessary improvements. Any rapid improvement or elevation of their standard has been studiously avoided. It has been already stated that the Government of Bengal were strongly opposed to the inclusion of lower vernacular schools in the primary system. In a letter to the Government of India, dated 20th February 1879, it expressed the opinion that "the definition of primary instruction should be confined " to reading, writing, and arithmetic; and that no substantive instruction as "such (*i.* as a special subject, and in addition to any information that the "standard reading-book may furnish) should form part of the standard." This passage defines the view which the Government of Bengal has taken since 1872 of the scope of primary education. That view is held by the Bengal Government to be in accordance with the Despatch of 1854, and it follows the policy laid down in the orders of Sir George Campbell. It will have been gathered from the foregoing sketch that the object of Government has been to give the masses of the people useful, however elementary, instruction in the schools which they themselves created and maintained, and in the form in which they are said still to desire it. The schools are declared to be village schools, established and maintained by the people for the people; and the Government contribution, small as it is, is a subsidy paid to the schoolmasters as an inducement to them to teach, and as a reward for teaching, those subjects of elementary liberal instruction which find no place in the ordinary course of the village pathsala. It is believed that any attempt to raise the schools as a body above the lower primary standard would be to drive away those pupils whom above all others it desires to attract. At the same time, the general improvement of the pathsalas is not wholly neglected; and it is effected partly by the substitution, as opportunity offers, of younger and better-educated teachers, and as a consequence thereof, by the introduction of new subjects of study, serving to connect the pathsalas with the general educational system of the Province, and by encouraging the rise of selected schools to the upper standard. The motive to improvement is supplied, not only by the small rewards that are earned at the annual gatherings, but by inspection, by the stimulus of a competitive examination, by the award of scholarships, and perhaps in a still higher degree by the knowledge which the people in every village of Bengal have acquired, that the Government interests itself in their schools, desires them to prosper, and is eager to co-operate with them in their improvement.

157. Bengal: Educational Results in 1882—We have reviewed at considerable length the Bengal system, because in respect to the small grants by which its large numerical results are obtained and in regard to its practical abandonment of the principle of training teachers in Normal schools, its advantages have often been contested. We have therefore been anxious to show the merits claimed for it, and the approval which its development has received from the local authorities. The difficult task of incorporating the indigenous schools into the State system is one which we have recommended to the attention of the various Governments, and it will serve good purpose to explain upon what foundations the Bengal primary system is based. Our Recommendations given at the end of this Chapter will show in what respects we consider that that system requires improvement. It is only necessary here to conclude our review by offering a few remarks on the statistics for the year with which we are mainly concerned. Excluding 2,709 indigenous schools with nearly 41,000 pupils, which divided between them a grant of Rs. 4,272 for the whole year, paid for the mere submission of returns, there were in 1881-82, 898,389 children, male and female, who were receiving instruction in primary schools either maintained, aided, or inspected by the Department. This was an increase in

the schools aided under the various systems of about 125,000 children in a single year. These numbers exclude the attendance in the primary classes of secondary schools. But even so, the 51,778 schools thus brought into the State system of primary education represent three different classes of institution. Of them only 28 are wholly maintained by Government, and are situated in backward tracts of country. Each pupil educated in them cost public funds nearly Us. 4 per annum* The aided indigenous schools numbering 47,374 were educating 835,435 pupils, each of whom cost public funds about 11 annas per annum. They come under some one or other of the various systems of aid which have been described. Besides these there were 4,376 unaided schools attended by 62,038 pupils which in the words of the Provincial Report have been "cut out in the course of the year from the quarry of indigenous path-salas, and have either adopted the departmental standards or attended the "public examinations without receiving any aid/ The strength of the Bengal system lies in the aided indigenous schools, and we shall presently enquire into the quality of instruction imparted in them. But it may be mentioned here that in 1876 out of 338,000 pupils in such schools no,000 could read easy sentences in a printed book. In 1882 out of more than 820,000 pupils 316,558 could read. It is to be remembered that the schools taken up into the system are schools in which there is little or no reading of a printed book, and that any considerable increase under that head makes a clear gain to the general instruction of the people.

158. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Primary System. — It has been explained in Chapter II that primary education in the North-Western Provinces began with an attempt to *improve* and multiply the indigenous schools which Mr. Thomason's enquiries, made between 1845 and 1850, showed to exist in very considerable numbers throughout the Provinces. Mr. Thomason's general object was to distribute as evenly as possible a network of schools over the whole country. His special object was, while preserving as far as possible the traditional method of instruction, to make it more practical; and so to enable the agricultural population to understand the rights assured to them under the settlements of the land revenue. In the eight Districts selected for experiment tahsili schools at the head-quarters of each tahsildari were established as models, and a staff of inspecting officers, or pargana and zila visitors as they were then called, was entertained. The duty of the pargana visitors was "to visit all the towns and principal villages in their jurisdictions, and to ascertain what means of instruction are available to the people. Where there is no Tillage school, they will explain to the people the advantages that would result from the institution of a school; they will offer their assistance in finding a qualified teacher and in providing books, &c. "Where schools are found in existence, they will ascertain the nature of the instruction and the number of scholars, and they will offer their assistance to the person conducting the school. If this offer is accepted, the school will be entered on their lists, the boys will be examined and the more advanced scholars noted; improvements in the course or mode of instruction will be recommended, and such books as may be required will be procured. Prizes will be proposed for the most deserving of the teachers or scholars, and the power of granting free admissions to the tahsildari school be accorded." The zila visitor supervised the work of the pargana visitors, testing the accuracy of their reports, deciding on the bestowal of prizes recommended by them, reporting upon the course of education followed in each class of school, ascertaining as far as possible the extent and nature of the private instruction given to those of the upper classes who did not attend schools, and acting as the departmental agent for the distribution and sale of school-books.

For four or five years every effort was made by Mr. EL Stewart Reid, the Visitor-General, and those under him to carry out Mr. Thomason's scheme. The results, however* were meagre, the tahsili schools alone answering the expectations entertained of them. Moreover, during these years another system of primary instruction had been growing up. This system arose out of an experiment made by Mr. Alexander, Collector of Muttra, upon the following plan: "Apargana being chosen, it was ascertained how many children of school-going age it numbered, what revenue it paid, and what expense it could therefore bear. A cluster of villages, some four or five, was then marked out, and the most central of the villages fixed upon as the site of the school [termed "halkabandi]. The rate in aid originally varied a good deal in the different Districts, but ultimately the zamindars agreed to contribute towards education at the rate of one *per cent.* on their land revenue. Mr. Alexander's idea was quickly caught up by other Collectors; in 1853 Agra, Bareilly, Etah, Etawah, Mainpuri, Muttra, and Shahjahanpur all had a certain number of halkabandi schools, and at the close of 1854 there were about 17,000 boys receiving education in them.⁵ With the increase and success of these schools, the indigenous schools gradually fell more and more into the background, and before many years the recognised system of primary education consisted of the tahsili or what would now be called middle vernacular, and the halkabandi, or primary schools. The teachers in both received fixed salaries, the cost of the tahsili schools being borne directly by Government, and that of the halkabandi schools by the one per cent, cess on the revenue, which, at first voluntary, was in a few years made compulsory. In 1871 there were 4,307 departmental primary schools attended by 148,126 pupils, while 143 aided primary institutions were giving instruction to about 5,000 children. Meanwhile the numerous indigenous schools continued to exist, but were left almost entirely to themselves. In addition to this cause of complaint against the system, it was urged that the halkabandi schools tried to imitate the tahsili schools and were rising above the requirements of the masses, while the adoption of Urdu in the place of Hindi afforded a further ground for dissatisfaction in many parts of the Province.

159, North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Progress of primary Education.—That these complaints were not without some foundation may be inferred from the results shown in the two comparative statements printed towards the beginning of this Chapter. The statements indicate an absence of such progress between 1871 and 1882 as may be found throughout the rest of India in the school attendance of primary schools. After proper allowance has been made for the primary classes of secondary schools, there were in 1871 more than 153,000 children in the public primary schools of this Province—an attendance far in advance of Madras and of the Punjab, and not far behind Bombay. But after the lapse of 11 years, we find that both the Southern and the Western Presidencies have far outstripped the Northern Province. In 1881-82, there were 213,238 pupils in primary schools maintained or aided by the Department in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh; while in Madras with a far smaller population there were more than 360,600, and in Bombay, with only half the population of the Northern Province, there were nearly 332,700 in similar schools. In no other Province of India was the percentage of pupils in primary schools to the male population so low, being only *89 per cent, in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, against 2*6 in Bombay and 2*2 in Madras. The contrast which these figures afford naturally leads us to enquire into the causes assigned for them. It has been alleged that the poverty of the agricultural classes sufficiently accounts for the backward state of primary education, and it is true that up to 1877-78, a year of general sickness and distress, the attendance in public primary schools

steadily increased every year. The losses of that and the following years have not yet been wholly recovered. There can be no question that the falling off in recent years was due to famine and its subsequent effects; but, on the other hand, it may be noted that in the Deccan, where the famine of 1876-78 was of longer duration and probably of even greater severity, the primary schools are filled, and the progress of education has been resumed. The losses of the famine years have been more than made good, and the average attendance in a Bombay school is 62 as against 36 in the North-Western Provinces. Moreover, the Bombay agriculturist pays school-fees; while in the Northern Province, free instruction is given to the cess-payers. Again, it has been alleged that at one time the halkabandi schools made an injudicious attempt to imitate the tahsili schools, and several of the witnesses who appeared before the Commission consider the present course too ambitious and unsuited for practical purposes; but in the opinion of the Provincial Committee, the former charge at any rate cannot now be sustained. Some other explanation must, therefore, be sought for the want of elasticity in the system of primary instruction in the North-Western Provinces. It seems that there has been a deviation from the original policy initiated by Mr. Thomason with the full approval of the Court of Directors. The indigenous schools have remained altogether outside the organised system, and for many years past they have received no assistance or encouragement from the Department. Yet the feeling of a large proportion of those whose leisure and means permit of their providing for the education of their children, is still in favour of the indigenous system; while the number of those families who accept the departmental type of school, and at the

* same time are able to spare their children from manual labour, has nearly reached its limit. In Bombay, the popularity of the departmental schools is proved by the annual increase of pupils attending them; but in the North-Western Provinces, the attendance in the halkabandi schools exhibits no similar progress. We shall hereafter enquire into the subjects taught and the qualifications of masters in halkabandi schools; we shall also consider the powers entrusted to local committees and the financial arrangements for primary education. It is sufficient here to state that in our opinion the encouragement of indigenous schools would have led in the North-Western Provinces to the same development and progress which have been found in the rest of India to mark the history of education between 1871 and 1882.

160. Punjab: Primary System.—The Punjab system was intended to be a combination of the systems of Bengal and of the North-Western Provinces. From both it borrowed the organisation of the high school with its provision for primary classes, and from the latter the halkabandi school. But the circle system was soon abandoned, and schools were established without any exact reference to the theory of equal geographical distribution. In 1854 the Local Government declared it to be their “intention to impart sound elementary knowledge in the vernacular and to give every village throughout the land its elementary school.” But at the same time they recognised the fact that a provision of 24 lakhs of rupees would be required for the extension of a really national system of education, and that more than one generation must pass away before any such sum could be realised. It seems probable that more rapid progress towards realising the extension of such a system might have been attained by incorporating the indigenous schools into the organised system of primary education and by improving their methods. We have already expressed in Chapter III our dissent from one of our Punjab colleagues who holds a different view. At any rate that policy was not adopted, and the attempt to cope with the ignorance of the masses by means of departmental schools has not succeeded. It may be admitted that the want of adequate funds has created

part of these difficulties. Thus in 1869 about 300 primary schools were abolished with a view to raising the salaries of teachers in those which were retained. The total of primary schools which stood at 1,884 in 1867 amounted to only 1,524 on March 31st, 1881. During this period the total expenditure on education from all sources had increased, according to the statement of the Provincial Committee, from Rs. 8,66,766 in the former year to Rs. 13,92,534 in 1880-81. Per although the municipalities in the Punjab are exceptionally liberal towards education, and though the primary school fund rests upon the solid basis of local rates, still it has never been the practice in the Punjab to make any assignment from provincial revenues to primary vernacular schools. On the contrary, the cost of subordinate inspection and other charges formerly borne by provincial revenues have been thrown upon the funds administered by local committees; and, as in the North-Western Provinces, even the local fund is subject to appropriations for famine and other Public "Works before it reaches the local committee. Another explanation of the comparative unpopularity of the Punjab schools has been found by certain witnesses in the inclusion of Persian as a part of the primary school course. A still more frequent cause of complaint urged against the departmental schools is the preference given to Urdu instead of the Hindi and Punjabi vernaculars. The vernacular of a large proportion of the population of the Province is Punjabi, or Hindi in its various forms, and it is urged that the departmental schools do not make adequate provision for teaching these dialects, and that they employ Urdu too exclusively as the medium of instruction. On the other hand, it is represented that it was quite natural that the Department should at the outset adopt Persian and Urdu. Throughout the territories of the Muhammadan Kings of Delhi, Persian was used as the language of official correspondence, and its position became so firmly established that it remained the language of the Courts during the Sikh rule, hostile though that rule was to every form of Muhammadan supremacy. When the Court of Directors desired that the vernacular should be substituted for the classical language, Persian, the change to Urdu afforded the most easy transition. The great bulk of the indigenous schools teach Arabic, Persian, or Urdu, and it is therefore urged that the Department wisely conformed its course to that of the existing schools. Urdu is still the language of the British Courts of law, and while it remains so it will naturally find a place in the public primary schools. Whether the circumstances of the Province have now altered, is a more difficult question to decide. There is a large party who would like to see Urdu replaced by Hindi. But the choice of a vernacular is as much an administrative as an educational question, and therefore it is one on which the Commission have hesitated to pronounce an opinion. In no other Province of India has the choice of a vernacular constituted so great a difficulty; and the advocates of the local language or dialect, which has been displaced or excluded from the school course, have been loud in their complaints against the Department. It is a question which in our opinion can only be practically determined by local boards, and we have framed a Recommendation accordingly. We only notice the subject here, as it accounts in some measure for the obstacles against which the primary schools of the Punjab have had to contend. For these and other reasons, primary schools have not increased in the Punjab as they have in the adjoining Provinces. There were, however, 102,867 pupils in 1,827 primary schools on 31st March 1882. Of these schools 1,549 were departmental and 278 were aided. Thus the attendance in 1882 fell far short of that which existed in Bombay or in the North-Western Provinces in 1871. On the other hand, it appears that in 1870-71 there were 1,755 schools in the Province maintained or aided by the State which were attended by 69,497 pupils. These figures would at least show that primary education in the Punjab, if it has not advanced as rapidly as elsewhere, has yet not been entirely stationary.

A considerable number of the Government schools, and the great majority of aided primary schools, are attached to English schools for secondary education, of which they form a preparatory department. These schools are situated in the large towns. Of the rest of the schools included in the primary system, some are converted indigenous schools, others are only branches of vernacular schools for secondary instruction, and about one-half the whole number are purely primary schools chiefly established by the Department. Judged by the proportion of the population at school, it seems that, with the exception of that of the North-Western Provinces, the State system of primary education in the Punjab has been the least successful in India. While more than 2 J per cent, of the male population are at school in Bombay and Bengal, '91 per cent, only are so provided for in the Punjab. Of the Hindus and Sikhs, about 1 *2 per cent, in each case are at school, whilst only '63 per cent, of the male Muhammadan population attend the schools recognised by the Department.

161. The Central Provinces: Primary System—The Central Provinces, embracing an area of 84,000 square miles with a population of nearly ten millions, border on Madras, Bo'mbay, Bengal, and the North-Western Provinces. Seventeen per cent, of their population speak Marathi, the chief vernacular of the Bombay Presidency; 53 per cent, speak Hindi, the chief language of the North-Western Provinces and the Districts of Bengal that adjoin them; 8 per cent, speak the dialects of the aboriginal races known as Gondi and Khondi; and 6 per cent, speak Uriya and Telugu, the vernaculars of Orissa and of the neighbouring districts of Madras. As the educational history of the Provinces dates only from 1861, their policy has naturally borrowed something from all the systems which obtained in the adjoining Provinces. From the North-Western Provinces, the Central Provinces borrowed the village school system of Mr. Thomason as well as the 1 per cent, school cess, which was raised to 2 per cent, of the rental shortly after the formation of the Province: from Bombay it has largely adopted its system of internal mechanism and its standards of examination ; while from Bengal it has derived the theory, advocated in that Province long before it was put into practice, of incorporating indigenous schools and working upon the basis of private enterprise. Judged by the statistics whether of Bombay or of Bengal the progress made has been remarkably slow, but it is necessary to remember the poverty and scantiness of its population ; its early history, which like that of Bombay was a history of general disorder and disorganisation; and the confusion of tongues which results from the use of so many different languages and dialects. With slender funds and a weak indigenous system to work upon, the Department has nevertheless made fair progress. The indigenous schools wherever they could be found have been incorporated into its system and gradually improved. The departmental schools have been increased in numbers and associated with village school committees on the plan adopted in Bombay. In addition to these two agencies the Department has encouraged the creation of new schools by private enterprise. In doing so, it has relied somewhat too much upon the enthusiasm of a particular officer or his influence over the village headmen. In fact it is one of the rules of administration in the Central Provinces that “ every District officer is expected to see that the schools are well filled with pupils.” We have referred elsewhere to the bad effects of official pressure; and although it helped at the outset to overcome some of the difficulties with which the Department in a backward Province was called upon to deal, its inevitable result may be traced in the falling off of aided schools which we shall now notice. In 1871 there were 795 departmental primary schools, and 1,091 aided or **inspected** institutions which were together educating 7^399 pupils. In **1882**

the aided and inspected schools had fallen to 454 with about 22,000 pupils, while the Government schools had risen to 894 with 55,745 pupils. But the aided and inspected schools are strong and progressive institutions. In Bengal the average attendance at an aided school is 17 pupils, while in the Central Provinces it is 51. With such an attendance even a small grant per head affords substantial assistance to the manager. In Bengal the contribution from public funds given to an aided primary school on account of each boy averages less than 11 annas; in the Central Provinces it is double that sum, so that while the average grant made to each school in Bengal is about Es. 12 a year, in the Central Provinces it is about Rs. 70. The percentage of Muhammadans at elementary schools is, with the exception of the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, the largest in India, being nearly 4 per cent, of the male Muhammadan population. The percentage of Hindus is greater than in the North-Western Provinces. But upon the large aboriginal population the Department has hitherto made no impression at all. The decrease of aided schools is ascribed to the backwardness of the people, the collapse of premature endeavours to stimulate local effort, and generally to the weakness of private enterprise. The small increase of departmental schools is attributed to want of funds and the widespread ignorance and superstition of the population. Altogether a great improvement and advance is required before primary education can overtake the masses. The percentage of the male population at public primary schools is larger than in the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab, being 1.5 per cent.; but on the other hand both those Provinces have a large system of indigenous schools awaiting incorporation into the State system, whilst in the Central Provinces the outer circle no longer exists. It is therefore an interesting problem, which patience and experience can alone solve, whether the direct instrumentality of Government must henceforth, as was the case in Bombay, be mainly relied upon for the further extension of primary education, or whether continued efforts to rely on private enterprise will succeed as they have succeeded in Madras.

162. Assam: Primary System.—The history of Assam was bound up with that of Bengal until 1874. The greater part of the early history of its primary education has therefore been already described under the account given of Bengal. The systems of the two Provinces are so far identical that primary education in each is based on private effort. But in Assam the great majority of the aided schools are new creations, and were not adopted from the pre-existing indigenous system. They have been called into existence by the stimulus of the grant-in-aid system. This is the natural result of offering substantial assistance. In Assam the average annual contribution from public funds for each boy in aided institutions is nearly Rs. 2, of which Re. 1.9 is borne by local rates. In 1879 the Assam Local Rates Regulation was passed, under which an allotment from the rates may be made for the construction of school-houses, the maintenance of schools, the training of teachers, and the establishment of scholarships. In other respects, besides the liberality of its aid, the Assam system now differs largely from the Bengal system. Great attention is paid to the training of teachers and the improvement of their method of instruction. The schools are divided into two classes, lower vernacular (or upper primary) and pathshalas (or lower primary schools). Grants-in-aid to primary schools were up to 1876 limited to Rs. 5 per mensem. In 1876 the maximum allowance was raised from Rs. 5 to Rs. 6, except in the District of Sylhet, where the original maximum was retained. In special cases for hill tribes a grant up to Rs. 10 per mensem may be sanctioned. For *l?or* *tols* and *maktabs* only a scheme of payment by results was introduced in 1880-81, but as yet with little result. The Bengal

plan of granting aid by payment for results has never been tried in Assam proper, and the Inspector considers that its introduction in the form in which, it is carried out in Bengal would result in closing most of the straggling primary schools which have been brought into existence.

163- Coorg: Primary System.—In the small Province of Coorg, which was annexed in 1834, early steps were taken to establish Government schools. The direct agency of Government has continued to supply the wants of the people without any attempt to incorporate the indigenous system, and with very little effort to stimulate private enterprise. In 1871 the Government of India, in pursuance of their general policy which has already been fully described, urged upon the attention of the Chief Commissioner the need for extending primary education by means of a local cess. The village headmen proposed the revival of the plough tax, which was a rate levied on each plough varying from three to four annas according to the classification of the soil. The proposal was sanctioned as being in accordance with the wishes of the people, and the tax yields about Us. 5,220 a year. As a necessary complement to the levy of a local educational rate, the village headmen were consulted regarding the control of the schools, and village school committees were appointed in 1873 to assist in promoting attendance and in supervising the management of the institutions. By these measures primary education has made some progress, and whereas there were only 1,541 pupils at elementary State schools in 1871, there were 3,069 on 31st March 1882 attending 57 Government and 3 aided schools. Nearly 5 per cent, of the Native Christian male population and 3 per cent, of the male Hindu population attend these schools. The whole male population of Coorg amounts to only 100,439, whom 3 per cent, are at primary schools.

164- Haidarabad Assigned Districts: Primary System.—These Districts separated by mountain barriers from the Central Provinces on the north and from the Nizam's Dominions on the south are open on the west to the Bombay Presidency and on the east to the Central Provinces. They have borrowed their system principally from Bombay, but have also attempted in later years, after the example of the Central Provinces, to encourage the indigenous schools. Their primary schools are supported by contributions from a local cess which is applied to works of local utility. For such works a cess is levied on the land revenue to the amount of per cent., of which one-fifth is assigned for education. To this assignment a contribution from the revenues of the Province is added, but owing to a peculiar system of account the Provincial grant appears to be larger, and the local fund contribution less, than they really are. The education fund created by the combination of provincial and local contributions is not administered as it is in Bombay by local committees, but it is distributed by the revenue officers who are primarily responsible for the management of the elementary schools. The progress made in the encouragement of indigenous schools may be inferred from the following statistics : In 1871 there were 297 primary schools with 10,223 pupils, all of which were Government schools. On 31st March 1882 the Government schools had increased to 467 with 27,844 pupils, while there were 209 aided schools with 4,212 pupils, and 207 schools unaided but under inspection attended by 2,672 pupils. The population of these Districts is 2,672,673, and 2-5 of the male population are at school. The Muhammadans are well represented in the school attendance, but the large aboriginal population, exceeding 37,000, remains entirely uneducated. It is alleged that the indigenous schools are far inferior to the Government schools, and not so popular. It should, however, be noticed that the average grant made to each male pupil in an aided school

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is only 12 annas per annum, which is not much more liberal than the rate given in Bengal, and contrasts unfavourably with that in Assam and the Central Provinces, to which the satisfactory results noticed in a previous paragraph are attributed.

165. Statistics of Primary Education for all India.-Under the various provincial systems which have been described, there were in 1881-82 in the public primary schools of India with which our Report is concerned, 2,061,541 pupils receiving instruction in 82,916 recognised institutions. Thus 1.02 per cent. of the entire population in the nine Provinces reviewed were under instruction, or if the school-going population of both sexes be estimated at 15 per cent. of the whole population, then 6.78 per cent. of them were at primary schools. But these figures do not take into account the primary classes of higher schools in Bengal and Assam which were giving instruction to about 100,000 pupils, nor yet the attendance in the indigenous elementary schools outside the State system, for which an estimate is given in paragraph 118, Chapter III. Assuming that altogether there were some 2,520,000 pupils under primary instruction in 1881-82, this estimate, which is the most liberal that we are justified in making, would give only 8.29 per cent. of the population of school-going age in the primary schools or classes of India in that year. If again the male population be separated from the female, then there were under primary instruction 15.48 per cent. of the male school-going population, and .81 of the female school-going population; while 12.55 of the male children and .80 of the female were in the primary schools recognised by the State. In this last class of schools, containing 2,061,541 pupils of both sexes, nearly 1,600,000 were Hindus, 374,560 Muhammadans, and 41,600 Native Christians. But for our present purpose a more important classification of the pupils under instruction in schools recognised by the Department will show that 663,915, or 32.2 per cent., were in Government institutions, 1,141,844, or 55.4 per cent., in aided schools, whether indigenous or conducted on European methods, while 255,782, or 12.4 per cent., were in unaided schools under regular inspection, many of which are really departmental schools in Native States. For further details we must refer to General Tables 2 a, 2 b, and 2 c, which will be found at the end of this Report. But we shall conclude our review of the provincial systems of primary education in India by stating the Recommendations which we offer on this part of the subject under discussion. 166. Recommendations regarding Systems of State primary Education.-Our review has shown that for many years the cause of primary education had to struggle against the theory described as that of "downward" filtration." The contest was prolonged up to dates varying in different Provinces of India. The comparative neglect of the education of the masses in the Native States of India shows that their claims are even yet inadequately recognised by native society. Under these circumstances, and as it is probable that henceforth the administration of primary education will largely devolve on local committees, we think it desirable that the policy upon which the British Government has acted since 1871 should be reaffirmed. We therefore express our conviction that while every branch of education can justly claim the fostering care of the State, it is desirable, in the present circumstances of the country, to declare the elementary education of the masses, its provision, extension, and improvement, to be that part of the educational system to which the strenuous efforts of

the State should now be directed in a still larger measure than heretofore. In order to secure full practical attention to this important declaration of policy, to which further reference will be made in considering expenditure on primary education, we shall in para-

graph 216 consider the financial arrangements which will best advance the object in view. We shall also, in considering the subject of legislation in Chapter XI, repeat and discuss a further Recommendation which we unanimously adopted. That Recommendation was *that an attempt be made to secure the fullest possible provision for an extension of primary education by legislation suited to the circumstances of each Province** If adequate financial provision is secured and the hearty co-operation of local boards obtained, the first question that will present itself to the authorities entrusted with the task of diffusing primary education will be the choice of the agency by which the work is to be done. We have discussed at length the advantages claimed for the departmental system, and shown to what extent the direct instrumentality of Government has hitherto been relied on in various parts of India. We may repeat the caution contained in the Despatch of 1859 : “ It is obvious that no general scheme of popular education could be framed which would be suitable for all parts of India.”⁹ The history of the progress of education under the different Local Governments forbids any general condemnation of any of the various systems in force, which have produced on the whole satisfactory results. -As remarked by the Government of India in 1881 “ these systems being the outcome of long experience must necessarily vary with local circumstances and local requirements, and it would be unreasonable to seek uniformity at the cost of hindering their further development, or of rendering them unsuitable to the particular circumstances of the Provinces in which they have grown up.” We have therefore carefully avoided any Recommendations which could be interpreted as advocating any centralised control in the matter of primary education, or the wholesale alteration of any existing system. At the same time we may remark that arguments which at the outset induced Government to rely mainly on its own direct efforts, lose, except in the case of neglected castes or of backward Districts, much of their force when once a solid foundation has been laid for the diffusion of primary education. We are therefore unanimous in pressing upon the attention of those Provinces the North-Western Provinces, and the Punjab, which have almost exclusively favoured their attention to Government schools, the following *where indigenous schools exist, the principle of aiding and as an important means of extending elementary* *them/eco/nised several* Provinces, of which the most important is Bengal, which do not require to be reminded of the permanent advantages of eliciting private enterprise; but our review of their systems of aiding indigenous schools has suggested the Recommendations given in Chapter III, namely, “ that a steady & gradual improvement in such schools be aimed at with as little immediate interference with their *personnel* or curriculum as possible: ” and “ that special encouragement be afforded to their masters to undergo training or to being their relatives and probable successors under regular training.” If indigenous schools are to be improved, it is necessary that the inspecting staff should be strong. The number of Sub-Inspectors in Bengal has been largely increased since 1872, and every indigenous school recognised by the Department is inspected either by one of the 173 Sub-Inspectors or by a chief guru, who is a superior indigenous schoolmaster. But since it is obviously impossible for the 173 Sub-Inspectors to examine *in situ* a very large number of the aided indigenous schools, it has been found necessary to supply their place for purposes of local inspection by the agency of chief gurus. Both agencies have their uses, but with the large and increasing number of indigenous schools requiring inspection in Bengal it is absolutely necessary in our opinion to make a large addition to the regular inspecting staff. In his last Report on Public Instruction the Director has remarked that “ it may be broadly assumed that

“if the number of Sub-Inspectors in those Districts in which primary schools abound were doubled and even quadrupled, it would still be impossible to secure such frequent inspection of pathshalas as would seem to be required.” If the indigenous schools are to be incorporated into the State system, it is essential that the Government, which can afford them very little assistance in money, should at least provide sufficient inspection. The examinations under the Bengal system are conducted at central gatherings, and we have already stated the objections which seem to be involved in such a plan. To meet the deficiencies of the system we recommend **that examinations by inspecting officers be conducted as far as possible in situ, and all primary schools receiving aid be invariably inspected in situ.** Of the different systems of aid we have already given a brief notice, and in Chapter VIII their advantages will be more fully discussed. We therefore content ourselves with stating without further comment our Recommendation **that as a general rule aid to primary schools be regulated to a large extent according to the results of examination; but an exception be made in the case of schools established in backward districts or under peculiar circumstances which may be aided under special rules.** By the qualifying expression “to a large extent ” we mean to include, in our definition of the result system recommended by us, such a system as is being tried in Madras and Assam, where a salary grant is given more or less dependent on the efficiency of a school as tested by results. On the importance of providing Normal schools and various other matters we have passed specific Recommendations, which will find a more appropriate place in subsequent portions of this Chapter.

167. Methods of Registration of Attendance—It can readily be understood that in Provinces where the schools are mainly departmental and the schoolmasters are Government servants receiving fixed salaries, there can be no general inducement to falsify the returns, unless a school is bad and the master wants to deceive his superior officer. But even in this case the difficulty of falsifying registers is to a considerable extent checked by a comparatively strong inspecting staff, and by the independent agencies of school committees and Revenue Officers. In Madras, where the great bulk of the schools are aided, special and stringent rules regarding registers are contained in the Result Code. Inspecting schoolmasters, Deputy Inspectors, Inspectors, and finally Local Fund Boards, constitute a chain of supervision which tends to secure accuracy in the returns, and instances of fraud seldom occur. “When they do, a prompt example is made, and the offending schoolmaster is deprived of the whole or a part of his result grant. In Bombay, and in the Central Provinces, in addition to the agencies described as existing in Madras, there is a further check upon the schoolmasters which might perhaps be adopted with advantage in other Provinces of India, at any rate for departmental schools. Under the orders of the Government of Bombay it is “considered part of the regular duty of an Assistant Collector to visit a considerable number of primary schools and to report, “ on forms issued by the Education Department, the results of his inspection. “ The mamlatdars and mahalkaris ” (senior native revenue officers) “ should visit “ every school in their charge for the purpose of reporting on such matters as “ the condition of the buildings, the use or abuse of the free list, the number of “ boys present as compared with the number on the register, and the truth of any “ complaints against the master.” In addition to these safeguards there are village school committees attached to each school, whose business it is to record in a book kept for the purpose the results of their frequent inspections. Lastly, it is a common practice in Western India for the native Judges on circuit, native pleaders and other professional or private men who are travelling, to visit the village schools *mrotfe*, and record their remarks in the visitors’ book. Under

this system the registers of village schools are believed to be thoroughly trustworthy and hardly a single case of fraud, except in Sind, has been reported for many years. In Bengal the annual returns are ordinarily collected at appointed centres by the Sub-Inspectors, whose means of checking false statements consist in a reference to their notes made at visits *in situ* and at gatherings of the pathsalas. It is stated in the Provincial Report that "there is no temptation to give in false returns, as there are no capitation grants for numbers on the roll." On the other hand, the area of inspection is admitted to be too vast for adequate supervision. In reviewing the last Report on education the Lieutenant-Governor expressed his hope that it will in future be possible to attach greater statistical value to the returns of primary instruction. "Recent disclosures make the Lieutenant-Governor glad to think that in the Local Government Boards a means will be found for closer supervision than at present exists over the class of chief gurus and Sub-Inspectors who are now responsible for the submission of these returns." In the North-Western Provinces it is admitted that perfect honesty has not yet been secured, and must not be expected, but on the whole the returns are considered fairly trustworthy. In the Punjab it is the business of all inspecting officers to examine the registers of attendance, and to ensure as far as possible that the entries are genuine. It is, however, stated that in village schools there is some laxity. In the Central Provinces part of the Bombay system of inspection has been introduced, and the Inspector General reports that in village schools the visits of the tahsildars, deputy tahsildars, as well as the Inspectors and other officers, afford an adequate check against fraud. But he adds that though in a remote village a master may submit false returns for a time, his detection is ultimately certain. In Assam the registers checked by his subordinates are generally trustworthy, though instances have occurred of fraud in some memory. In Coorg the inspecting officers aided by the village headmen are said to keep sufficient check over the masters' returns. In Hyderabad Assigned Districts a clear line of distinction is drawn between unaided and aided primary schools. The registers in the former are considered trustworthy, but in the latter it is said that "the very existence of the indigenous schools is only reported once a year, and the statistical information supplied cannot be relied upon."

168. School Accommodation.—In the matter of school buildings as well as of methods of registration there is also a broad distinction between departmental and aided schools. The contrast is most marked between the departmental system of Bombay and the indigenous system of Bengal. In the Bombay Provincial Report it is stated that there are 688 substantially built school-houses in the British districts and 371 in the feudatory States of the Northern Division alone, which have together cost more than 27 lakhs. Besides these there were 560 houses built after the country fashion of less lasting materials, whilst 2,530 were private houses or temples lent to the Department. The school-houses are being improved as far as funds will permit. In Bengal it is stated that "School accommodation does not as yet form a very important point for consideration in this country, the climate permitting the children, except during the rains, to sit out in the open air. Of the 50,788 schools, 6,545 have houses of their own, 43,256 are accommodated rent-free in the houses of other people, and 987 are held under the shelter of trees." In Madras, school accommodation for rural schools is often very insufficient. An open *pyal*, or raised verandah facing the street, is among the best of the places provided. Sometimes a dark room is used. A shed used for cattle at night often does duty for a school-room by day. Inspecting officers not unfrequently hold their examinations under a tree. Where, however, local board

and municipalities have schools, there is generally fair and sometimes good accommodation. In the North-Western Provinces school-houses are either Government buildings on a more or less uniform plan prescribed by the Public Works Department; or rented buildings; or sheds or other accommodation lent by zamindars. The houses answer their purpose fairly well, and light and ventilation are sufficient. In the Punjab also, where the system of primary education is chiefly departmental, constant attention is paid to the subject, and it is stated that the tendency is to build more expensive houses * than are really required. In the Central Provinces the Government school-houses are built on a standard plan. They are said to be durable and cheap. A school-house for 60 pupils costs Rs. 600. It is a tiled building built of brick and lime. If the village or town committee wish for a more imposing structure, they must obtain subscriptions to its cost. In Assam the houses are of the rudest description, consisting simply of posts and a thatch, while in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts more ambitious flat-roofed structures have been planned by the Public Works Department. They are said to be expensive, and in the Provincial Report the expense is justified by the argument that the village school-house ought to be the best building in the village—a really suitable and permanent structure. “Such a building well furnished is “in itself an education both for the villagers and their children, and should “outlast successive generations.*” On the whole, then, it may be said that proper school accommodation for Government schools is generally provided, while in Bombay and in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts very great attention is paid to the subject. On the other hand, the school-houses of the aided schools in country villages are very indifferent, frequently mere cattle-sheds or corners of houses, while in some cases the shade of a tree supplies the wants of the pupils until the monsoon closes the sylvan school-houses for four months. After some discussion we arrived at the following Recommendation, **that for primary school* school-houses and furniture should be of the simplest and most economical kind.** Local authorities must attach to the phrase “economical” whatever interpretation considerations of the climate and of the permanency of the institutions may justify. We are not in favour of spending local funds on architectural effects, but on the other hand cow-sheds or the precarious shade of trees afford an obviously insufficient accommodation even for Indian children. In Bombay, the expenditure upon school-houses is very largely in excess of that which is found necessary in other Provinces, and it seems to us that it would be advisable to reduce it. The provision made in the Central Provinces appears to be well adapted for all purposes.

169. School Apparatus and Libraries.—Once again, the advantage is naturally on the side of the departmental schools in the matter of furniture and apparatus. In Madras the schools are ill-supplied, except of course the primary classes in higher schools. It has been suggested that in order to remedy the admitted defects in the indigenous and some of the aided schools, the managers should be compelled to spend a portion of the grant earned on the purchase of a board, maps, and slates. This, it is urged, would be a development of that policy of steady but gradual improvement of method which is so successfully carried out in the indigenous schools of Madras. But as such compulsion would interfere with the right of private managers to spend their grant at their discretion, the proposal has very properly not been enforced. In Bombay it is part of the system of making primary education thoroughly efficient and progressive that maps, boards, sand-glasses, and other necessary furniture should be invariably supplied. For the larger town schools more apparatus is given; and to the few schools which have adopted the Kindergarten system wall pictures are issued. Globes have been supplied to the cess schools

that teach the higher standards, and several of the largest institutions have collections of mineral, botanical, and other natural objects collected by the boys themselves. A few schools in convenient localities have gardens attached to them, and prizes are annually awarded for the three best in each District. Nearly every school is supplied with a library of some sort consisting of a set of the class books and books of reference. The town schools are also supplied with a monthly school paper. Most of the aided and inspected schools have equipped themselves with similar furniture and apparatus. In Bengal the primary schools have little or no furniture, and of course no libraries. The upper primary schools alone have a few benches and a stool for the teacher. They have also the necessary maps, a black-board, and a few books of reference. In the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab such furniture as is absolutely necessary is supplied, while in the Central Provinces and Berar the Department has generally furnished its schools on the Bombay scale. In Assam the school furniture consists of a chair, a table, and a few maps, but there are no books. In the preceding paragraph we have stated our recommendation that "the furniture should be of the simplest and most economical kind," but much has to be done before even this moderate provision is universally made.

170. Standards of Instruction and Results of Examination.—We

give below a statement showing the results of primary school examinations under the various standards prescribed in each Province of India. We shall afterwards explain in detail the standards adopted, and offer some remarks on the varying results which the following Table discloses; but we may mention here that the figures for Bengal do not show the results of the District examinations for rewards under the payment by results system, since no fixed standards other than the scholarship standards are prescribed for the whole Province. It is worth noticing how rapidly the number of those who pass examinations decreases in going from the lower to the higher standards. The proportion varies considerably in different Provinces, but throughout India a large number of the pupils in primary schools leave school before they have received anything like a complete elementary education.

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Supreme Government on the following grounds. It was pointed out that in Bengal the course in primary schools and in the primary classes of secondary schools was determined not by reference to an ultimate University standard, but by the requirements of those students whose education was to come to an end in the school or the class in which they were reading. Alternative standards were required by the various needs of the community, and the effect of the rules was to abolish them. As a special objection, it was urged that the proposed classification made no provision for the standard of the “ lower vernacular schools,^{5*} each of which included History, Geography, Euclid, and a branch of physical science, and therefore went far beyond the upper primary standard as now defined. The force of these objections was admitted by the Government of India. The same considerations have induced us to recommend that the attempt to carry out the orders of January 6, 1879, be abandoned, and no endeavour made to force various and widely different systems into one shape. Our Recommendation is *that the upper and lower primary examinations be not made compulsory in any Province*; and its application is intended to be somewhat wide, as the course of our debates will show. It was first proposed, at our meeting of February 19th, 1883, that^a the adoption of the upper and lower primary examinations be not made compulsory on the Departments throughout “ India.” The proposal was objected to, on the ground that it was desirable to go much further than this, and to avoid imposing an identical course even on schools within the same Province. For a similar reason the proposal, that “ the upper and lower primary examinations be not made compulsory on schools in any Province of India,” was not carried, because it was held that the Recommendation as given above was wide enough in its terms, not only to secure variety in every Province, but also to allow of it in the various classes of schools found in the same Province. Finally, a motion was made and strongly supported, to the effect that “the annual Reports of Public Instruction should show a complete record of the results of the departmental and public examinations held in each Province.” To this proposal objection was taken on the ground that the motion if carried might be used to impose on schools the same uniform tests which it was sought to abolish; and that it was better to leave each Local Government free to issue whatever orders were considered necessary. On the other hand, it was urged that in some Provinces these tests were popular with aided as well as with Government schools. In this conflict of opinion the Commission, recognising the importance of leaving to every Province the largest independence and discretion, decided against the motion, thinking it better to leave the original Recommendation sufficiently wide to cover all cases.

172. Provincial Standards of Examination—Madras: Bombay: Bengal.—The following summary will show how far the regulations of the Government of India have been adopted in their entirety or modified in the different Provinces. In the case of the three largest Provinces we have placed the standards side by side in parallel columns, so as to afford an easy comparison.

The lower and upper primary standards in Madras, Bombay, and Bengal are as follows:—

Madras.

Bombay.

Bengal.

LOWER PRIMARY STANDARD.(Usually passed at the end of the pupil's 3RD year.)

Head.	Head.	Head*
1. (a) Reading at sight with facility a moderately easy book in a vernacular language. (15 marks).	1. (a) Reading and explanation of the First and Second Departmental Readers in the printed vernacular character. (b) The First Departmental Reader in the script vernacular character. (c) Recitation and explanation of the poetical pieces. (100 marks).	1. Reading* (a) A Vernacular adaptation of Chambers's Rudiments of Knowledge. (b) Manuscripts written in current hand.
(b) Writing to dictation from the same book. (25 marks).	2. (a) Writing to dictation, in the printed and script vernacular characters, an easy passage containing words of two or three syllables. (5) Copy-writing (large hand). (100 marks).	2. Copy-writing. (200 marks for heads 1 and 2).
Arithmetic—The first 4 rules, simple and compound, with easy miscellaneous questions founded on them. (40 marks).	3. Arithmetic— (a) Tie first 4 simple rules. (b) Mental Arithmetic on the native methods. (100 marks).	3. Arithmetic— (a) The first 4 rules, simple and compound. (150 marks). (b) Mental Arithmetic on the native methods. (150 marks). (c) Bazar and zammdaii accounts and simple mensuration. (150 marks).
	4. Geography—Boundaries, mountains, rivers, chief towns, roads, railways, &c., of the collectorate to be pointed out on the map. (50 marks).	Cunningham's Sanitary Primer. (100 marks).
N. 2?— In order to pass the pupil must obtain i of the maximum number of marks in each of the above heads and ^ of the aggregate marks of the standard.	jv. JB.—In order to pass the pupil must obtain 4- of the marks assigned to each sub-head and \ of the total marks of each head.	N. 3.—In order to pass the pupil must obtain \$ of the marks in each group of subjects and \$ of the aggregate marks of the standard.

UPPSR PRIMARY STANDARD,

(USUALLY PASSED AT THE END OF A 5TH-CLASS COURSE.)

Compulsory Subject—**Compulsory Subjects—**Compulsory Subjects—*

1. (a) Reading at sight with fluency and intelligence a passage of ordinary difficulty from a vernacular book or newspaper. (15 marks).	I- M parsing the Fifth Departmental Book, inclusive of the Lessons on Elementary Physics and Natural History. (S) Poetry. ^ I (c) Reading manuscripts written in good current hand. \ (100 marks). j	(100 marks).
(c) Writing a passage to dictation from the same. (25 marks).	2. (a) Writing (in the printed and script character) to dictation from the Reading Book. W Copy-writing (current hand). (100 marks).	

Madras.	Bombay.	Bengal.
Arithmetic—(a) Reduction, the Compound Bales and Vulgar Fractions. (4.0 marks).	Arithmetic:— (a) Vulgar Fractions. Simple Rule of Three and Simple Interest.	2. Arithmetic— (a) Vulgar and Decimal Fractions and Simple Proportion.
{6} Kental Arithmetic applied to bazar transactions. (10 marks).	(b) Mental Arithmetic (complete) after the native methods; and. bazar accounts. (100 marks).	(5) Native accounts. (150 marks).
Geography—Asia. (40 marks).	History of India with special reference to the history of the Province; Physical and Political Geography of India ; map of the District Or Province to be drawn. (100 marks).	Euclid, Book I. (50 marks).
		History and Geography of Bengal. (100 marks).
		Elements of Physics. (100 marks).
		6. Cuningham's Sanitary Primer. (100 marks).
<i>Optional Subjects</i> (any two may be chosen)—	<i>Optional Subjects</i> —	
Vernacular Poetry—Recitation and explanation of 200 lines of verse from any approved anthology. Simple parsing. (40 marks).	1. Elementary Drawing, viz.; (a) Free-hand drawing. (b) Model and Object drawing. (c) Practical Geometry.	
English—Reading and constructing from the Second Heading Book. Dictation and oral translation. (45 marks).	Field instruction in agriculture.	
Elementary History—India or England, or the History of the World. (40 marks).	Printing, carpentry, joinery, smithery,	
Cunningham's Sanitary Primer. (40 marks).		
Robertson's Agricultural Class Book or any similar Primer. (40 marks).		
JV. S.—In order to pass the pupil must obtain J of the marks in the compulsory subjects 1 and 2.	iV. S.—In order to pass the pupil must obtain J of the marks in each sub-head and of the aggregate marks of each head, of the compulsory subjects.	B.—In order to pass the pupil must obtain % of the marks in each group of subjects and f of the aggregate marks of the standard.

We have referred to Vernacular Standard VI, which is the highest development of the Bombay course, and is intended to prepare the successful pupil

in primary schools for the lower grades of the public service, The subjects are as follows:—

Compulsory Subjects.

1. [a] Beading', with explanation, the Seventh Departmental Book (inclusive of the lesson on the History of Ancient and Modern Europe, and on Natural History and Elementary Physics);
(b) Syntax, Prosody and Etymology ;
(c) Explanation and recitation of 300 lines of classical Vernacular Poetry;
(d) Beading rough current hand. {115 marks}.
2. Writing a report or story in current hand. (100 marks).
3. (a) Arithmetic, complete.
(b) Knowledge of the principles and method of arithmetic ; or Euclid, Book I.
(c) Advanced Native accounts and book-keeping. (100 marks).
4. (<2) History of India, ancient and modern, with information regarding the system of Government.
(5) Geography, Political, Physical and Mathematical; an outline map of India to be drawn, (details to be prescribed by the Inspector). (100 marks).
5. Cunningham's Sanitary Primer (Vernacular Version). (50 marks).

Optional Subjects.

1. Elementary Drawing, including—
(a) Free-hand drawing;
(b) Object and model drawing;
(c) Practical Geometry.
2. Field instruction in Agriculture.

North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Standards.—In primary English schools the subjects of instruction are Hindi or Urdu, English reading and writing, the elements of grammar, arithmetic, history and geography, and simple sanitary rules. In primary vernacular schools the subjects are reading, writing, and arithmetic, with the elements of history, geography, sanitation, and mensuration. In some schools the boys are taught to read the village accountant's papers. Besides the lower and upper primary examinations prescribed by the Government of India, there is no general departmental examination for primary schools.

Punjab: Standards.—The lower primary school contains three classes, the course in which comprises no English. The following is the work of the third or highest class: third and fourth Urdu readers, copies and dictation, first and second Persian readers, arithmetic to compound division (money), and maps of the Punjab and India. The upper primary school contains two classes, and the course may be rather English or vernacular. That of the highest class is as follows. In English schools the first reader; and in vernacular schools mensuration is substituted for English. The other subjects see Urdu and Persian selections: grammar, parsing and translation: arithmetic, including practice, rule-of-three, square measure, and interest: geography, including names of the countries of the world, with their capitals and chief natural features : and revision of previous lessons.

Other Provinces: Standards —In the Central Provinces, as in Bombay, the course of studies varies for schools in different parts of the country. Primary instruction is given either in primary vernacular schools or else in the primary departments of middle schools. The latter have only three classes,

while the former usually have four and in towns five or six classes. Vernacular standard III is held to correspond with the lower primary standard and standard IV with the upper primary. Under the former are taught reading, writing, grammar, geography, and arithmetic, including mental arithmetic and the four simple and compound rules. Under standard IV are taught reading, writing, grammar, history, geography, and arithmetic, including simple proportion, vulgar fractions, and native accounts. In Assam primary schools are classed as lower and upper, the latter being also called lower vernacular schools. The standard of the former is arranged in strict accordance with the Government of India Resolution of the 6th of January 1879, while to the course of the latter a few additional subjects are added in order to prepare the pupil for the scholarship examination. In Coorg the standards are those prescribed by the Government of India. In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts the course is framed upon the standards already described for Bombay.

173. The Place of English in primary Schools.—Considerable conflict of opinion prevails as to the proper place which the study of English should occupy in primary schools or classes. Variations of practice depend to a large extent upon differences of system. In Provinces where the pupils destined for higher education are separated at the earliest age from the great bulk of primary pupils and commence their education in a middle or high school, the general tendency is to begin English as soon as possible, and in some cases English is taught before the child can read or write his own vernacular. Thus in the Bengal high school English is generally employed as the medium of instruction and is taught from the lowest class, but in middle schools its study is discouraged until the boy has passed the third standard. In the ordinary village school of Bengal English is very rarely taught. In Madras not only is English taught as a language from the lowest class of a middle school, but it is also studied in the primary schools from the third class upwards; in other words, before the pupil has entered on the upper primary standard. The demand for English instruction in the south of India is so strong that the large attendance in primary schools is said to be due in no small measure to the popular demand for English. In Bombay, on other hand, the Department has systematically resisted every attempt to introduce the study of English until a boy has completed standard IV and reached the point where secondary education commences. Even then an English class is not attached to a purely primary school unless those who require it are prepared to pay for the extra cost. As the strictly primary course according to the definition of the Government of India is then completed, boys who study English in a class attached to a primary school are classified as under secondary instruction. There are no primary classes attached to middle schools in Bombay, and therefore it follows that in Bombay no pupils under primary instruction are returned as studying English. The Bombay Department not only believes that many good vernacular schools are liable to be spoilt by the introduction of English into the primary course, but it also argues that the preservation of the vernacular in the course of all classes of schools is required in order that the mental progress of the scholar may be reflected in his increased power to make use of his own language. It is urged in the Report* of the Provincial Committee for Bombay that the Despatch of 1854 contemplated that the vernaculars would be enriched by translations of European books or by the compositions of men imbued with the spirit of European advancement, and that the only method of thus bringing European knowledge within the reach of the masses is to give every pupil a

* Page 47 of the Report.

thorough grounding in the vernacular, and to keep his attention upon it even up to the college course. In pursuance of this policy English is rigidly excluded from the primary school course. With such a variety of practice we found it impossible to lay down any rule-upon the subject of English instruction which would suit the circumstances of every Province. The extent to which English is at present taught to children under primary instruction in each of the large Provinces of India will be seen in the Table given below. But it must be noted that owing to the peculiarities of the Bengal system already described we are unable to show the number of pupils in the primary classes of secondary schools who are learning English. The figures given for Bengal are those of pupils in strictly primary schools. For the other Provinces the figures in column 3 give the number of pupils both in primary schools and in the primary classes of secondary schools who are learning English. All that can be said regarding Bengal is that out of nearly 140,000 pupils in secondary schools more than 94,000 are in primary classes, and would, in any other Province of India except Assam, be returned as primary pupils. Of them all in the primary classes in high schools are learning English, as well as some proportion of those in middle schools.

Statement showing the number of primary pupils learning English in each of the larger Provinces of India.

Provinces.	Total number of pupils in all institutions learning English.	Number of pupils in primary schools or classes learning English.	Percentage of numbers in column 2 to those in column 3.
1	2	3	
Madras	61,098	35,591	58
Bombay	23,789
Bengal	75,677	1,025*	See foot-note.
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	18,449	12,608	68
Punjab	11,074	7,808	70
Central Provinces	5,446	2,609	47

* The figures for Bengal exclude the primary classes in middle schools.

174. Results of Examinations in primary Schools.—Although the results of examination ought to afford some indication of the relative value of primary instruction given in each Province, yet it will be clear from what has been said that the results, as already tabulated in paragraph 170, can only give a partial idea of the relative progress made throughout India. Of the progress made from year to year in each Province, they afford sufficient indication; but in comparing the number of successful candidates at any examination in one Province with those who have passed an examination called by the same name in another, the question arises how far the standards are the same. The Departments in Bombay, in the Central Provinces, in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, regard their standard IV as equal to the upper primary standard pre-

scribed by the Government of India, while the Bengal Department regards the course in its upper primary schools as going considerably beyond that standard. But the relative difficulty of the subjects taught in the different Provinces of India can be determined by a reference to the standards already given in this Chapter. Independently of this question, the following statement is useful as showing the very small proportion of pupils who come up for examination in Bengal. It indicates the difficulty and magnitude of the task which has yet to be accomplished in that Province before it can raise the standard of its indigenous schools even up to the moderate requirements of the lower primary standard. This remark remains true after every allowance has been made for the fact that the pupils in the primary classes of secondary schools in Bengal are for the most part excluded from this Statement.

Statement comparing the number of examinees in each Province.

Province.	Primary pupils.	Examinees.	Standard.	Number passed.
Madras	360,643	10,869 23,379	Upper primary . Lower „	7,172 16,607
-		34,748	Both	23,779
Bombay	332,688	18,630 45,583	Upper primary Lower „	8,176 22,822
		64,213	Both	30,998
Bengal	898,389	3,157 29,368	Upper primary Lower „	2,544 16,561
		32,525	Both	19,105
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	213,238	14,316 31,322	Upper primary Lower „	6,756 15,225
		45,638	Both	21,981
Punjab	102,867	6,329 10,360	Upper primary Lower „	4,210 7,626
		16,689	Both	11,836
Central Provinces . . .	77,737	7,551 12,740	Upper primary Lower „	3,113 6,617
		20,291	Both	9,730

175. Recommendations as to Standards and Examinations.—We have fully explained the want of uniformity which necessarily attends the progress of primary education not merely under widely different systems, but also amidst populations that differ so materially in social habits and stages of civilisation as the different races and classes of Indian society. The largest possible independence should be left to each Government. Education should grow with the various growths of different Provinces, and whatever tends to check its free play and development or to force it into anything like a uniform shape for the whole of India should be avoided. Our attention has been drawn to a difficulty which has been specially brought to notice in *the* North-Western Provinces, but which has also been referred to in other parts of Northern and Eastern India. It is urged by some that the spread of education is injurious to the interests of agriculture by making the children of cultivators

unfit for hard work in the fields and leading them to be discontented with their lot in life. It is obvious that this is a danger which arises only while education is the monopoly of a few, but with a wider diffusion of knowledge the sense of discontent which it is said to inspire will disappear. To some extent, however, the complaint indicates another danger and shows how necessary it is that the elementary education provided for the masses should be of a kind which they recognise as practically useful to them in their ordinary occupations. We are convinced not only that education of the right kind is as beneficial to the cultivators as to all other classes of Indian society, but also that it is capable of improvement and development as society advances. We therefore recommend *that the standards of 'primary examination in each Province be revised with a view to simplification, and to the larger introduction of practical subjects, such as native methods of arithmetic, accounts, and mensuration, the elements of natural and physical science, and their application to agriculture, health, and the industrial arts; but that no attempt be made to secure uniformity throughout India.* Not only do we desire to see each provincial system left free to develop according to local wants, but we also desire to see the greatest freedom left to managers of aided schools. We therefore recommend *that care be taken not to interfere with the freedom of managers in the choice of textbooks.* Under a grant-in-aid system, it may be necessary to test results by fixed standards of examination, but it is important *that promotion from class to class be not made to depend necessarily on the merits of one fixed standard of examinations uniform throughout the Province.*

176. Physical Training .—We have given an account of the intellectual training provided under various standards in the public primary schools of India. We have now to enquire what steps are taken to promote the moral wellbeing of the children. As we have previously observed, in which education is mainly provided by the direct instrumental system, it possesses a great advantage in this as in some other respects over those systems built on private schools which must be left very much to themselves. Accordingly, in Bombay and the Central Provinces especially, gymnastics and drill have been introduced as part of the school routine, and schoolmasters are taught gymnastic exercises as part of their training. In Bengal, the opportunity of boys being collected for central examinations is often taken to encourage athletic contests and to reward success in physical exercises. In the rest of India less systematic attention is paid to the subject. It seems to be taken for granted that the boys who belong to the lower and more robust classes of society will provide exercise for themselves. But the sedentary habits of the higher castes are proverbial; and we consider that a regular course of physical exercise would have a specially good effect upon the minds and bodies of most Indian students. We therefore recommend ***that physical development be promoted by the encouragement of native games, gymnastics, school drill, and other exercises suited to the circumstances of each class of school.*** The Bengal plan shows how in the case of aided schools occasional opportunities may be taken for encouraging gymnastics, and under the departmental system the provision of a small play-ground with a few poles and bars will not add much to the cost of education, while it will afford the boys a beneficial interlude from mental study.

177- Moral Training .—Much has been said in the evidence and the memorials before us regarding the importance of moral teaching. There is a widespread feeling, especially in the Punjab, that something should be done to promote the development of the sense of right and wrong in the minds of scholars of all grades. Some have advocated the preparation of a moral text-book, others of

a manual for the guidance of masters, whilst others again think that the object will be more surely gained by introducing lessons having a moral bearing into the ordinary reading-books. Very successful efforts have been made in this direction in the Province of Bombay, especially in the series of text-books prepared by Mr. T. G. Hope, c. s. The whole subject of text-books for primary as well as for other schools will be reserved for consideration in Chapter VII. Undoubtedly they offer one means of conveying moral teaching to pupils. But even where their importance is recognised, we doubt whether the teachers take sufficient advantage of any opportunities open to them of instilling moral principles and habits into the minds of their pupils. The ever-impending examination tends to push to one side any subject, however important, which will not appear directly in the "results." In the Central Provinces the Manual of Teaching, which is put into the hands of every student on his admission in to the Normal school, contains a full statement of the teacher's duty in this respect, and similar directions are included in the "standing orders" of the Bombay Department. But there may be some doubt how far these measures effect their object. It is of course impossible to secure that every teacher shall be a man of such moral character as to lend weight to his precepts. But the inspection of a school should at any rate include a careful enquiry whether the boys have had their attention directed to the moral significance of the lessons they have read. A simple manual for the guidance of teachers may assist them in this part of their duty; while the knowledge that some enquiry will be made by the Inspector will keep the subject before their minds. Nor should the moral value of strict and careful discipline be left out of sight. When a boy knows and keeps his proper place in the school, he will be in some degree trained to keep it in the world also. Manners afford some indication of moral training, and should on no account be regarded as beyond the teacher's care. It appears that a good deal of what is sometimes described as moral deterioration in Indian school boys is in reality a departure from the gentle and respectful manners of old times. In tMs respect the Inspector's treatment of the schoolmaster will often be reflected in the master's treatment of his pupils. There may be inspecting officers who are more careful of their own dignity than of that of the schoolmasters with whom they deal, while the latter is in reality far more important. On the whole, though no general measure can secure moral training in primary schools, careful and constant attention may have some effect in promoting it. We therefore recommend *that all inspecting officers and teachers be directed to see that the teaching and discipline of every school are such as to exert a right influence on the manners, the conduct, and the character of the children* and that for the guidance of the masters a special manual be prepared.

178. Religious Teaching—It has already been shown how large a place religious teaching occupied in the course of instruction provided in indigenous schools, both high and low. Even from the essentially secular bazar school in some parts of India, religion is not excluded; while the complaint against maktabas has been that they confined their instruction to the Koran. Polio wing a policy of strict religious neutrality, the Despatch of 1854 declared that the system of grants-in-aid should be based on an entire abstinence from interference with the religious instruction conveyed in the school assisted. Under the application of this stringent rule, aided institutions are at liberty to convey whatever religious or moral instruction they please. But the Despatch did not leave its decision on the question of religious instruction in departmental schools to be drawn as a mere inference from the contrast with aided schools. On the contrary, the Court of Directors declared that Government institutions were founded for the benefit of the whole population of India, and that it was therefore indispensable that the education conveyed in them should be exclusively

secular. At the same time it was explained in paragraph 84 of the Despatch of 1854 and in paragraph 59 of the Despatch of 1859 that the masters of Government schools were not absolutely precluded from giving instruction out of school-hours in the facts and doctrines of the Christian religion to any pupils who might apply for such instruction. Against the strict principle of excluding religious instruction from the school-course various objections were raised and discussed in the Commission. It was urged that in some parts of TnHia, no difficulty would arise, because the Government school is attended by children all of whom belong to one religious sect; that part of the policy of transferring the management of primary schools to local committees was to permit of wider and readier adaptation to local wants, which might possibly include a desire for religious teaching; and that, finally, these boards might be trusted not to do violence to religious prejudices or local feelings, or at least that the reservation of a right of appeal from a dissenting minority would secure justice to all. On the other hand, a majority of us considered that religious feeling was so inflammable in India, and sectarianism so prevalent, that it was not safe to depart from a policy which had worked well in the past. The value of religious education was admitted on all sides, but it was hoped that home-instruction and the increase of aided schools in which religious instruction may be freely given, would to a large extent minimise the recognised evil of banishing religion from Government primary schools. Accordingly we rejected a proposal " that religious instruction be permitted, with the sanction of the school committee, in primary schools maintained by boards: provided (i) that such arrangements be made as to enable parents objecting to the religious instruction to withdraw their children from it; (ii) that the Inspector or other Departmental officer does not interfere or examine in such subjects; (iii) that if there be a dissenting minority in the community, who represent a sufficient number of pupils sufficient to form one or more separate classes or schools, if shewn to be incumbent on the Department to provide for the establishment of such schools, and it shall be incumbent on the municipal or local authority to such classes or schools a fair proportion of the whole cost. Having rejected this proposal, the Commission by a large majority adopted the following Recommendation, *that the existing rules as to religious teaching in Government schools be applied to all primary schools wholly maintained by municipal or local fund boards.* In dissenting from this Recommendation one member of the Commission observed that it must not be implied that the existing rules precluded religious instruction; for on the contrary teachers were allowed, in accordance with the Despatches just quoted* to give such instruction in the school before or after the ordinary school-hours, and several instances could be mentioned of teachers availing themselves of this permission, especially in the Bombay schools for Muhammadan boys. Another member remarked that religious instruction was especially desirable in girls' schools. The mover of the Recommendation with the assent of his supporters disclaimed any intention of desiring to alter existing practice, and the Recommendation was adopted on this understanding

179. Training of Teachers: Its Basis and Carried out in Practice*—We now approach a most important subject in the consideration of primary education. A special paragraph was devoted to this matter in the instructions issued by the Government of India to the Commission, from which we quote the following passage: " The arrangements existing in different parts of the country for training the teachers of primary schools should be brought under careful review, and suggestions for rendering that training more efficient and practical should, if possible, be submitted." In the Despatch of 1859 it was remarked that " the institution of training schools does not seem to

“have been carried out to the extent contemplated by the Court of Directors.” In a later Despatch of the Secretary of State, dated March 24, 1862, satisfaction was expressed at “the improvement of the halkabandi schools in the North-Western Provinces in consequence of the training of the masters in Normal schools.” Thus from the earliest date particular stress was laid upon the improvement of the teachers. We have seen that upon this basis proceeded the first attempts to improve the indigenous schools of Bengal. The “circle system” and the “Normal school system” attempted to raise the standard of instruction in the Bengal village schools through improved teaching.” Sir George Campbell’s scheme of 1872 also laid particular stress upon “attaching newly appointed teachers of village schools for some months to training classes at the district or sub-divisional head-quarters.⁵⁵ In 1872 and 1873 there were 26 Government Normal schools of all grades in Bengal. In 1874 the new scheme for the extension of Normal schools came into force. It contemplated the establishment of a first grade school for training superior vernacular teachers at the headquarters of each Division; and of a lower grade school for village school teachers in each District. Accordingly, sanction was given to the establishment of 9 Normal schools of the first grade, 22 of the second grade, and 15 of the third grade, at a total annual cost of Rs. 1,64,000. Half of the stipends at first grade schools, and all at second and third grade schools were allotted to pupils under training as village teachers.

180. Change of Policy in Bengal as regards the Training of Teachers.—After a year’s trial of this scheme, the Lieutenant-Governor, Sir Richard Temple, found reason for believing that it was unduly expensive. In fact, the utility of Normal schools, except as a means of providing trained teachers for the better section of the pathsalas, had already begun to be doubted. A phrase in common use about this time in the mouths of District Officers was that to raise the indigenous schools much above their traditional level would be “to improve them off the face of the earth.” The complaint also began to be heard that the indigenous gurus were strongly averse to leaving their villages and coming in, if only for three or six months, to the Normal school. Thus the new Normal schools were declared to be both costly and ineffective. The best gurus were considered able to teach the simple standard required of them without going to a Normal school; the worst were regarded as incapable of improvement by any process. The gradual substitution of better educated, if untrained, men was urged on grounds alike of economy and efficiency, especially if accompanied by a system of payment by results. Under that system it was thought that greater attention would be paid to the middle of the school, while the scholarships would always pull up the first class. The new policy with regard to Normal schools was set forth in a Minute dated 9th September 1875. The Lieutenant-Governor was of opinion that, at least in Bengal proper, teachers for the primary schools could be supplied in abundance from the classes educated in the lower vernacular and middle schools of the country; and that Normal schools for the training of elementary teachers could, except in the most backward Districts, be gradually closed without injury to the cause of elementary vernacular education. Accordingly, a few second and third grade Normal schools were to be kept up, though on a reduced footing, in the backward Provinces of Behar, Oota Nagpur, and Orissa only, where the supply from other sources of qualified teachers for primary schools was not equal to the demand* It was hoped that under the new system the cost of Government Normal schools could be reduced one-half without any sacrifice of efficiency. At the same time, continued improvement in the quality of the instruction was put forward, equally with an increase in its quantity, as an object

to be constantly kept in mind. The policy pursued throughout this period was governed by the principle that the standard of the lower primary scholarship was that at which the general body of primary schools should aim; and that for teaching up to that moderate standard instruction in a Normal school was not required. Even in backward Districts the system of payment by results was alleged to be sufficient to increase the natural supply of competent gurus, and to make the maintenance of a Normal school less necessary. The results of this new policy may be summarily shown. From 1874 to 1876 the number of Government Normal schools was 41. It fell to 31 in 1877, to 24 in 1878, and to 17 in 1879. In 1881-82 there were 8 Normal schools for training superior vernacular and 10 for training village teachers, including the guru departments of first grade schools. There is, therefore, no question that the new policy sanctioned by the Government of Bengal has been carried out in a deliberate manner. That policy proposed the gradual substitution of young men taught in middle and lower vernacular schools as teachers of primary schools ; and consequently, in considering the effect which the system has had in improving the primary education of the country, the Bengal Department claims to take into account not only the teachers trained in Normal schools, but those taught in departmental schools of the classes named. Under this definition of trained teachers it appears that, besides 3,358 teachers trained in Normal schools, 4,118 have been taught in middle schools, and 1,601 in upper primary schools. There are, therefore, altogether 9,077 teachers in aided schools out of a total of 47,402, who are qualified, according to the standard of qualification now accepted in Bengal, to teach the full primary course. There are also a certain proportion of the indigenous gurus who are similarly qualified; but as the total number of schools which sent candidates for the upper and lower primary scholarship examinations was in 1882 only 9,336, it follows that the number of such gurus is small. It is true that the number of schools qualified to send candidates for the primary scholarship examination has been steadily increasing since 1876, when the number was 3,110; but the figures show how great is the task that still lies before the Department in Bengal in its endeavours to bring the general body of primary schools up to the standard even of the lower primary examination. It proposes to effect this, not by imposing teachers from without on the village schools, since the choice of the teacher must generally be left to the village, but by gradually infusing among the villagers a desire for a better standard, and by so improving the position and prospects of the teacher that men with higher qualifications for the work may be gradually attracted to it. With the views expressed in Bengal as to the policy of training primary schoolmasters, it is well to place in contrast the opposite policy which has been steadily maintained in Madras, where the great bulk of the primary schools are improved indigenous and other aided institutions. The substitution of trained masters for the old class of teachers is there strongly insisted upon, and under the term *trained* are not included masters who have merely passed through a good primary school or even a secondary school as in Bengal, but only those who have received a good training in a Normal school. The Report of our Bengal Provincial Committee remarks* that “ the training of teachers from outside must necessarily be out of place in a system of primary schools “ growing out of an old organisation which is slowly changing under the new influences brought to bear on it.” The Report of our Madras Provincial Committee remarks on the contrary as follows: “ Improve! schoolmasters are a pressing want. For the training of these, some addition to the number of local Normal schools seems to be required. There has been a considerable increase in their

* *Tide*, Bengal Provincial Report.
 f Chapter III, Section 13, paragraph 12, Madras Provincial Report.

“ number, and they are, we believe, generally well organised and worked; a still
 “ further development of the system is a desideratum. On this point there is a
 “ pretty general consensus of opinion amongst our witnesses. Additional ex-
 “ penditure is of course required.”

181. Decision of the Commission: Ecommendations as to the Training of Teachers—We are unanimous in attaching the greatest importance to the continued and more systematic prosecution of the policy laid down in the Home Despatches, and until 1875 acted upon without question. It seems to us a matter of the greatest importance not merely that Normal schools should be established at a few centres, but that they should be widely distributed throughout the country. In considering indigenous education, we laid stress on the necessity of affording special encouragement to indigenous schoolmasters to bring their relatives and successors under training. But if this policy is to be successful, special facilities must be created. Accordingly we recommend *that the supply of Normal schools, whether Government or aided, be so localised as to provide for the local requirements of all primary schools, whether Government or aided, within the division under each Inspector.* *We attach considerable importance to the personal interest which each Inspector should take in the Normal school attached to his charge ; and in order that proper financial provision may be made for the extension of such institutions, we recommend *that the first charges on provincial funds assigned for primary education be the cost of its direction and inspection, a/nd the provision of an adequate supply of Normal schools.* We have laid emphasis on the local requirements of schools, and on the policy of localising training schools. It is in our opinion very desirable that the village schoolmaster should be a local resident and not a foreigner. In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts the want of proper Normal schools compelled the Department for many years to rely upon a supply of teachers drawn from Bombay. The disadvantages of such a plan are obvious. It is evident that by giving to the people of a District the prospect of employment, the popularity of the Department is in some measure secured. Again, it is desirable by every means to secure local interest and support in the village school, and the villagers may be expected to co-operate more readily with a member of th[^]ir own community. The success of an indigenous school has often been mainly due to the fact that the master was a member of the village community. In this respect the departmental schools may with advantage follow the example of indigenous institutions.

182. Existing Arrangements for Training Teachers—As already noticed, we were directed to review carefully the present arrangements for training teachers in each Province of India. We append two Tables, of which the first shows the number of trained and untrained teachers in primary schools throughout India, and the second gives the number of training schools. But in comparing the results shown in the Tables special reference must be made to the description of each provincial system which follows. The term “ certified^m bears various meanings in different Provinces. In Bombay and the Central Provinces all the teachers so returned have won certificates of merit after completing a two-year or a three-year course in a Normal school. In another Province the title is applied after a comparatively short training to any o^se who has gained a pupil-teacher’s certificate in a primary school. A glance at the columns of expenditure and of the numbers which left the Normal schools in 1881-82 will at once suggest comparisons as to the duration and quality of the training given. In the case of Bengal, the list includes schools for training not only the masters of primary schools, but also of middle schools. These and other differences will be more fully noticed hereafter.

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183. Madras: Normal Schools and Teachers.—It is unfortunate that the statistics supplied from Madras should be insufficient to enable us to fill in the first Table. But the deliberate policy pursued in Madras, of improving and not merely of incorporating the indigenous schools, has left its mark upon the *personnel* of indigenous schoolmasters. The progress is more marked in some Districts than in others. In Malabar 150 masters in 672 indigenous schools are returned as having been trained in a Normal school, and in the Godavari District there are 89 masters so returned in 641 schools. It is true that in 11,264 indigenous schools throughout the Presidency there are only 480 masters returned as thoroughly trained and 208 more who hold certificates. But these returns are reasonably held to be far below the proper estimate—An examination of the returns of the last twenty-three years shows that more than 5,800 trained masters have received fourth and fifth grade certificates. The number of those who have died, or abandoned the profession of teaching, or have been promoted to secondary schools must be a matter of conjecture; but in the opinion of the Madras Provincial Committee it is probable that 3,000 certificated teachers are engaged in primary education. The number of elementary Normal schools has rapidly increased of late years, and it is believed that their annual outturn is represented by at least 500 trained men; so that every hope is entertained of speedily overtaking the demand, and of supplying nearly all the indigenous schools with competent teachers. Provision for training primary teachers is made in 28 Normal schools, of which one is maintained from provincial resources, 24 from local funds and 3 are aided* The number of pupils in 1881-82 was 770. Of these, 166 learnt English, 14 a classical language, and 763 a vernacular; three-fourths of the students were thus being prepared for teaching in the vernacular only. Of the 770 pupils 167 were Native Christians, 561 were Hindus, 41 Mussalmans, and one was a Eurasian. The standard aimed at in these schools is the "successful upper primary examination," of which the *ed^6 wilt'M?|Jy^d* given in Appendix B of the Madras Provincial Report. T.j

Position of Teachers.—The pay and prospect of the public primary schools of Madras are said to be greatly superior to those of the indigenous schoolmasters who receive no aid. They are employed in three classes of schools—first, private schools aided by result grants; secondly, the schools aided by local fund boards and municipalities on the "combined system" which will be described in Chapter VIII; and thirdly, in schools aided by the same boards on the "salary grant system." In the first class of schools the average income of a village school-teacher is estimated at Rs. 7 a month. The teachers in the second class hold a better position, not merely as being assured of a fixed salary, but also as being servants of public boards. Their fixed salary averages Rs. 5, and their contingent income about Rs. 2-8 in addition. Thirdly, in local fund and municipal "salary grant schools" the salaries vary from Rs. 5 for an assistant to Rs. 12 for a head-master. Some boards, however, pay much more; in the Saidapet Local Pund primary school, for example, the salaries rise as high as Rs. 25. Generally only masters who have passed the Matriculation examination can secure salaries of Rs. 18 or Rs. 20. The salaries contemplated in the Grant-in-aid Code for masters in the primary classes of secondary schools range from Rs. 20 to Rs. 30 in the upper section, and from Rs. 7 to Rs. 20 in the lower section.

184. Bombay: Normal Schools and Teachers.—In 1881-82 there were 7 training colleges for male teachers, 4 maintained by Government, 2 in Native States, and one under private management. These had 480 students on the rolls, and 141 left during the year with certificates of training; while the out-

turn for the ten years, 1871-81, was 1,718. The total number of teachers employed in the cess schools at the end of 1881-82 was 9,314* Of these, 4,545 were head or sole masters, of whom 2,0773 **45*45** Per cent., held training college certificates; 2,683 were assistant masters, of whom **374s** or *4 P@** cent., were certificated, and 2,066 were pupil-teachers. Of the 2,488 masters returned as untrained, 1,371 received salaries amounting to less than Rs. 10 a month. These men are placed in charge of branch or small village-schools, for which teachers with a special college training are declared to be unnecessary. At present, at any rate, the Department would not be justified in appointing to such schools a more expensive agency, especially as the masters now in charge have nearly all passed an examination in the highest vernacular standard and are not incompetent to perform the duties entrusted to them.

Position of Teachers—The Bombay Provincial Committee give a complete list of the salaries paid to teachers in the cess schools, from which it appears that 59 per cent, of them receive salaries not exceeding Rs. 10 a month. All who are permanently engaged on a salary exceeding Rs. 10 are entitled to pensions payable from local fund revenues. Those masters, moreover, who have been instructed in the Normal schools receive, in addition to the TnfnTmmn pay named in their college certificates, an allowance calculated on the results of the annual examination of their schools and on the average attendance of their pupils during the year. This system of payment by results works fairly well. It enables the trained master of a large and flourishing school to almost double the minimum pay of his rank; but there is a certain drawback to the system in the varying attendance of the village schools, in consequence of which the income of the master is affected by causes independent of his merit. The highest monthly pay given to the head-master of any primary school rarely exceeds Rs. 60 a month, but teachers of long and approved service are eligible for Assistant Deputy Inspectorships, the pay of which post is Rs. 75. The prospects of a vernacular schoolmaster are not considered to be equal to those of an officer of similar status in the Revenue Department* Still the former occupies a respectable position in native society. In ninety schools out of a hundred he is a Brahman. In the rura districts he is often chosen to manage the village post-office, by which arrangement he secures additional pay and importance ; and in towns he is not unfrequently a member of the Municipal Committee. On the whole, it may be said that the cess schools have succeeded in attracting a competent class of men whose position secures respect for the office of schoolmaster, and who in point of education and intelligence are rather above the average of subordinate officers in other branches of the public service.

185. Bengal: formal Schools and Teachers.—We have already quoted the statement contained in the Bengal Provincial Report that the training of teachers from outside must necessarily be out of place in the Bengal system. It will therefore at first sight occasion some surprise to see how large an expenditure is annually incurred on Normal schools in that Province. The explanation will be found in the remarks made in an early part of this Chapter upon the Bengal primary system. That system extends into secondary education, since middle and high schools have primary classes attached to them. For the real primary schools of Bengal there are only 12 Normal schools in backward Districts, of which 8 are Government institutions attended by 248 pupils, and the rest are aided institutions. Besides these there are guru classes attached to 2 first grade Normal schools. The total outturn from the Government institutions was 193 in the year under review. The course occupies from six months to one year, whereas in Bombay it varies from two to three years*

The other 8 Normal schools were attended by 466 pupils, who are training for teacherships in the middle schools. Their course extends over three years, and includes a classical language, vernacular mathematics and science, up to some point which is above rather than below the First Arts standard of the Calcutta University.

Position of Teachers.—On this subject the following extracts are taken from the Provincial Report: “ The average annual pay of the teacher of an “ upper primary school is estimated at above Rs. 100 in cash, of which Rs. 48 “ are from Government and 52 from local sources; besides occasional payments “ in kind and clothes, and in many instances gratuitous maintenance by some “ well-to-do villager. The average income of the teacher of a lower primary “ school probably falls short of Rs. 100 a year. The Government contribution “ varies, under the result system, from Rs. 16 to the lowest average of Rs. 4; Cf under the stipendiary system the average payment is Rs. 31 a year; and under . “ a mixed system Rs. 39. A very large number of the teachers of lower primary “ schools have free board and lodging in respectable households. Cases are “ coming to be known of primary school-teachers seeking for promotion, and “ getting it as assistant teachers of middle schools, with some improvement to “ their position, but with no gain, as they quickly find, to their income.⁵⁷ It would, however, appear that the pay of all these masters, and especially of the lower primary schoolmasters, has been over-estimated. For in the General Table of Expenditure it is shown that the total cost of 46,453 aided boys* schools was less than 19 lakhs, including fees, all other local receipts, and the Government grant, which was not quite 26 per cent, of the whole cost. According to these figures each school enjoys an average annual income of Rs. 40 only. But average calculations are very misleading, and no accurate estimate can be formed of the value of fees paid in kind. According to a careful calculation made at page 127 of the Report, the small amount of the grants given in Bengal will be seen from the following figures

	Rs.			
2,059 stipendiary schools at .	31*1	per	school	per annum.
4,658 aided by stipends and rewards at .	39	33	33	
33,867 aided by rewards at	5*5	31	3J	»
5,680 registered schools at	n	3>	>3	33

186. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Normal Schools and Teachers.—This Province has always paid systematic attention to the training of teachers, and it is estimated that 58 per cent, of the masters hold certificates. There are 18 training schools for male teachers, and the course of instruction lasts one year. Kumaon is the only revenue Division which is not supplied with a Normal school. The Department endeavours to obtain for these schools young men who have passed the middle class vernacular examination, who are fairly well acquainted with the subjects which they will have to teach, and who require chiefly to be trained in the art of teaching. In Oudh there is a central Normal school at Lucknow, and in the other districts there are Normal classes attached to tahsili schools (one in each District), where teachers are trained in a similar manner. These latter teachers serve at first as apprentices, and if they give satisfaction are appointed permanently as vacancies occur.

Position of Teachers.—The monthly pay of halkabandi school-teachers varies from Rs. 5 to Rs. 12. Able and deserving men may be promoted to tahsili teacherships on Rs. 10, Rs. 15, and Rs. 20, and may become Sub-Deputy Inspectors, and possibly Deputy Inspectors. The great majority of halkabandi teachers, however, have little chance of ever getting more than Rs. 12 a month,

and they have no claim to superannuation pensions or gratuities. The total number of halkabandi teachers is 5,731, of whom more than half are certificated, and the proportion is yearly increasing.

187. Punjab: Normal Schools and Teachers.—There are three Gov. eminent training schools for vernacular teachers. The students are almost all stipendiaries drawn from the Districts, Students who have passed the middle school examination join the second-year class and receive a year's training before they are examined for a certificate. * The rest complete the full course of two years. The Christian Vernacular Education Society at Amritsar has a training school with 31 pupils. In the Government schools there are 170 stipendiary studentships. The Report remarks that in future, "when these students are all sufficiently instructed before joining to require only one year's training, the annual outturn should not be less than 150, which would be sufficient to supply the vacancies which occur in all existing schools." At present the number of teachers in Government primary schools, English and Vernacular, is about 2,500, In Government vernacular schools there were, in 1881, 1,284 head teachers, of whom 459 held certificates. Of these certificates, 168 qualify the holders to teach in middle schools, and 281 in primary schools. The number of assistant teachers was 757, of whom 120 held certificates, 56 of the middle school class, and 64 of the primary school class. Among untrained teachers and assistants, 77 had passed the Punjab University Entrance examination, and 305 the middle school examination. A few others have passed the special examinations of the Punjab University College in Oriental languages, or have studied in Government vernacular high schools. In aided schools the number of trained teachers is small, but no figures are supplied. In departmental schools nearly 1,000 teachers, or two-fifths of the whole number, hold certificates of a Normal school, or have passed some equivalent public examination.

Position of Teachers.—In 1869 a scheme for improving the prospects and pay of teachers in, the departmental schools of the Pan jab was sanctioned, under which the minimum pay of a schoolmaster, excepting assistants, was fixed at Rs. 10. This involved a large reduction in the number of schools and scholars, as additional funds had to be provided from the cess and local funds, but it materially improved the position of the teachers. As in other Provinces, there are a certain number of attached primary schools in which the teachers receive salaries, as low as Rs. 6.

188. Central Provinces: Normal Schools and Teachers.—In no Province of India, except the small district of Coorg, has greater success attended the systematic effort of the Department to improve teachers than in the Central Provinces. There are three Normal (Government) schools, one at Jabalpur with 97 scholarships, another at Nagpur with 40*, and the third at Raipur with 50. Village masters are trained for one year and town masters for two. All agree to serve for; at least two, years after qualifying. In the Government schools 87 per cent, of the masters are trained, which gives a higher percentage than in any other Province of India, while in aided schools the percentage is as high as it is in the cess schools of Bombay.

Position of Teachers.^The pay of vernacular teachers in the Government primary schools varies from Rs* 6 to 35 a month.. Those who draw less than Rs. 6 are monitors or pupil-teachers* Many of the masters are respected in the villages, and some of them are employed as village, postmasters, or allowed to sell licenses under the forest regulations*

189- Assam: Normal Schools and Teachers.—There were 9 Normal schools, 6 of which were departmental with 220 pupils and 3 aided mission with 11, besides 2 training classes with 23 pupils in Cachar. Arrangements have been made in the Goalpara District to train teachers at ten primary schools, the estimated number of stipendiaries being 60. In 1881-82 eighteen students qualified for first grade primary schoolmasterships, and one for a second. During the year the various schools and classes sent out 96 teachers, making the total since 1871 1,132. In the primary and lower vernacular schools there were 1,389 teachers, of whom 673 were trained and 716 untrained. The importance of improving the teachers of aided schools in this Province is fully recognised, and the Inspector observes that “the supply of qualified teachers is not nearly equal to the demand, and it is much better not to start a primary school at all than to start one with a bad teacher who brings discredit on our system of education.”

Position of Teachers.—A guru's pay varies from Rs. 3 to Rs. 6 a month in ordinary pathshalas. In special cases in pathshalas for hill tribes, the guru's pay is Rs. 10. In the Khasi and Jaintia Hills the pay of the teacher on an average about Rs. 12 per mensem. According to the report of the Inspector, the teachers, besides their regular pay, are allowed to keep whatever they can collect from fees; this makes the average pay of a teacher in a primary school to be nearly Rs. 5 a month. In making this calculation, all primary schools—Government, aided, and unaided—are included. If these be taken separately, the monthly income of a teacher exclusive of payment in kind is as follows: In Government police schools five teachers at Rs. 10, and two teachers at Rs. 12 each; in aided schools each teacher gets on an average Rs. 6-8, and in unaided schools each teacher gets on an average less than Rs. 2. A few of the best gurus occasionally are promoted to teachers in middle schools; but with this exception they have no position.

190. Coorg Normal Schools and Position of Teachers.—The training of vernacular teachers, a Normal class is maintained in connection with the central school. Candidates for teacherships, who are selected as far as possible from among the pupil-teachers of schools, receive Rs. 5 a month while under training, and have quarters in the boarding-house*. They are periodically examined* and on completing a course up to the middle-school standard, and passing a satisfactory examination, are appointed to schools as vacancies occur. Their pay commences at Rs. 7 a month* with the prospect of rising to Rs. 10 after five years* satisfactory service, and to Rs. 12 after five years more. Normal students who fail to pass the final examination, but are yet considered qualified for a lower teachership, are made masters on Rs. 5 a month. The pupil-teachers are promising boys who do well in the school and wish to become masters. They receive Rs. 3 a month and teach in junior classes to allow of an opinion being formed of their aptitude for the work. All the Ganarese masters are reported to have received some measure of training¹.

191. Haidarabad Assigned Districts: Formal Schools and Position of Teachers.—There is one training school at Atola, with Marat Mand Hindustani branches, the latter with 15 stipends, and the former with 60. There is both a first and a second year's course. Students passing the first year's course, but not qualified for the second, are sent out on salaries not exceeding Rs. 10. The second year men get Rs. 15, or from Rs. 10 to 12, according as they pass in the first or the second class. At the examination held in 1881, there

were 28 examinees, and 19 passed* those who failed being appointed assistant teachers on lower salaries. The trained masters who begin on Rs. 12 or Rs. 15 per mensem can rise to Rs. 25, if they give satisfaction and show good results. Assistant teachers on lower salaries are taken from the pupils of vernacular and Anglo-vernacular schools, and those on higher salaries are men who have matriculated or have finished the high school course, or have, by their long service, experience, and satisfactory work, established their claim to promotion. It has already been mentioned that a large proportion of the masters in these Districts are foreigners, but it is hoped that the Normal school will in a few years succeed in turning out a sufficient number of trained teachers who are residents of Berar. On the 31st March 1882, there were 418 posts of teachers with salaries varying from Rs. 12 to Rs. 25 per mensem, and 262 of them were held by persons who had not gone through or passed a training school-course.

192. Recommendations as to the Supply and Position of Teachers.—

We have already stated our Recommendations for providing in every Inspector's Division facilities for training and improving the teachers not merely of Government but also of aided institutions. In Madras the importance of the subject has been fully recognised. In Bombay, if the indigenous schools are further encouraged and assisted, as we think they ought to be, additional Normal schools must be provided, and it will be a matter for consideration whether a less severe test should not be prescribed, and the course shortened. In connection with this subject we call attention to a Recommendation which will be found in Chapter VIII that the "teachers in non-Government institutions be allowed to present themselves for examination for any grade of certificate required by the grant-in-aid rules without being compelled to attend a Normal school." In Bengal the Normal schools for strictly primary schools are according to our view inadequate, and more systematic and sustained endeavours should be made to improve the teachers of indigenous schools, whether in the way suggested by Sir George Campbell, or according to any modifications of his system which may be approved by the Local Government. In the North-Western Provinces much has been accomplished, but in the Punjab the results are less satisfactory. If our Recommendations regarding the treatment of indigenous schools are carried out in these two Provinces, additional and revised measures will have to be considered. In the Central Provinces and Coorg no suggestions are called for. In Assam a steady development of the policy now pursued will effect much improvement; but in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts greater facilities for training teachers are required. We may expect that in providing Normal schools, private enterprise will assist Government, and in that case the patronage at the disposal of Government should be freely bestowed on the best qualified candidates irrespectively of the institutions in which they are trained.

As regards the position of teachers, we have thought it best to make no formal Recommendations. It was suggested that the Local Governments should be invited to consider the propriety of conferring additional duties in connection with the revenue, postal, and forest Departments upon schoolmasters. But in respect to revenue duties, we recognised the danger of interference with the functions of hereditary village officers; and as regards the other Departments, we observed that the experiment had been attended in Bombay as well in the Central Provinces with some measure of success, and we anticipate that the example will be followed, if convenient, in other parts of India. All parties are agreed as to the advantage of raising the status of the village schoolmaster, and the measures appropriate to that end may be left to

the local authorities. The provision of liberal aid to indigenous schoolmasters is obviously the most simple and effectual means of raising their position.

193. Fees; and Exemptions.—Table 7 given in paragraph 219 of this Report will show the extent to which fees support primary education in each Province; and in Chapter VIII we shall revert to the subject. It is necessary to repeat the caution which has been conveyed throughout this part of the Report against hasty comparisons between the returns which indigenous schoolmasters submit, and those more accurate statistics which are collected under the departmental system. In indigenous schools where fees are paid without regularity and in kind as well as in money, it must be a matter of conjecture what is the money value of the teacher's receipts. But, speaking generally, the fees in the local fund and municipal schools of Madras are left to the option of the boards and are fixed too low. Still Madras collects in the shape of fees a larger proportionate amount than almost any other Province, especially in its aided schools. In the Bombay cess schools a certain percentage of free scholars is permitted, the proportion being regulated by the situation of the school, but the rule is that fees are charged, though at a reduced rate, even to the children of cess-payers. Some of the witnesses have urged that the fees might be raised at any rate in towns, and this has lately been successfully attempted in the larger towns of Bombay. Others have pleaded for a free education to the whole rural population on the ground of its general poverty. In backward Districts for aboriginal or specially poor races, and in girls* schools, no fees are charged. In rural Bengal according to the returns furnished by the indigenous schoolmasters the fees would appear to be large. In the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab, and to some extent in the Central Provinces, contributors to the local cess are exempted from all payments of fees. For full details as to the amount realised by fees in every class of school and in every Province we must refer to Table 8 given towards the end of this Chapter.

194. Recommendations as to Fees.—We think it generally desirable that even in primary schools fees should be raised as far as is consistent with the spread of education. As regards the propriety of demanding schooling fees from all pupils in the Punjab schools, we may call attention to the Secretary of State's Despatch No. 14, dated April, 8th, 1861. The writer of that Despatch remarks that "there do not seem to me to be any circumstances which would justify the continued exemption of the Punjab from the rule prevailing in other parts of India under which schooling fees are universally exacted." In our opinion the levy of some fee should be the general rule. Accordingly we recommend *that pupils in municipal or local board-schools be not entirely exempted from payment of fees merely on the ground that they are the children of rate-payers.* The adoption of this Recommendation will create a great change in Northern India. We base our Recommendation not merely on the example of Madras and Bombay, where rate-payers are subject to the payment of fees, but on the broader grounds of justice to the numerous rate-payers in Northern India, who, though they contribute to the cess, are not supplied with a public primary school, whether departmental or aided. The whole educational fund is inadequate to the supply of schools for every group of villages, and those who enjoy the advantage of a school should contribute towards its cost so as to promote the establishment of similar institutions elsewhere. But we do not overlook the wants of the struggling poor, or of exceptionally backward races and tracts. We therefore propose to limit the general rule by the following Recommendation, *that in all boardschools a certain propor-*

tion of pupils be admissible as free students on the ground of poverty ; and in the case of special schools, established for the benefit of the poorer classes, a general or larger exemption from payment of fees be allowed under proper authority for special reasons. While the case of departmental schools is thus provided for, we would also extend our general principle to aided schools, and accordingly we recommend that, subject to the exemption of a certain proportion of free students on account of poverty, fees, whether in money or kind, be levied in all aided schools, but the proceeds be left entirely at the disposal of the school managers.

195. **Scholarship System***—We have now to consider various measures adopted in the different Provinces for stimulating the interest of pupils and encouraging parents to send their children to primary schools. It will be seen that there is nothing like uniformity throughout India. In the first place we shall enquire into the provision made for scholarships and prizes, and afterwards into the measures adopted for giving the best pupils from primary schools employment in the public service. The following Table shows the number and value of scholarships held in primary schools, but we must observe that some of them are tenable for two or even three years, and others only for one year. The Table will not therefore represent the annual expenditure.

TABLE 4.—The number and value of Scholarships tenable in primary Schools.

Nabth or PsovirroE.	Number of Scholarships.	Total monthly value.	Total annual value.
1	2	3	4
		R a. p.	ft
* * * * *	Not returned.	228	26
Bombay	23	80 8 0	966
	38s	770 0 0	9>240
North-Western Provinces and Oudh.....	None.		
	Not returned but number small.		stated to be
Central Provinces	283	725 5 4	8,704
	108	324 0 0	3,888
Coorg	None.		
Haidarabad Assigned Districts . . .	None.		14
To TAX POX INDIA.	799	1,902 0 0	22,824.

The Despatch of 1854 directed that “the best pupils of the inferior schools should be provided for by means of scholarships in schools of a higher order, so that superior talent in every class may receive that encouragement and development which it deserves.” This instruction has not been literally or uniformly carried out, and deviations from the policy laid down in the Despatch have been justified on various grounds. In order to understand these grounds it is necessary to explain the functions which a scholarship system in primary schools is designed to fulfil. Scholarships may in the first place enable a pupil to proceed from an inferior primary school to one of a superior

order, and in the second place from a primary to a secondary school. Again, a scholarship system unites to a certain extent various educational agencies, since it possesses the unquestioned advantage of enabling aided schools to compete with departmental schools for a prize open to both. We shall see that, with the exception of Bengal, no complete scholarship system is to be found in any Province of India. Even in that Province the system is not developed up to the needs of the community. But before inquiring into the present circumstances of each Province we shall examine a preliminary objection that has been taken to expenditure on scholarships. It is urged that under the departmental system the necessity for a chain of scholarships is not felt. Hence in Bombay the tendency has been to reduce scholarships and to rely almost exclusively on free studentships. There is some force in this argument; and up to a certain point a liberal provision of free studentships does carry out part of the objects of the Despatch. In the Bombay primary system there is no division between the inferior village school for the masses and the superior primary departments of secondary schools for the education of the more well-to-do classes of society. In fact all boys, whatever their future course of study, learn the same subjects in the ordinary primary school. Hence no bridge is required to lead from primary schools of an inferior to those of a superior order. The first object then of a scholarship system is met in Bombay by the constitution of the primary school, which is complete in itself up to the point where secondary education commences. As almost all the primary schools are departmental, the Department is able to institute free studentships, and these provide sufficiently for the wants of poor pupils who find in the village school the best primary education which the State can supply. It is at the stage where the primary school is quitted for the middle school that the need for a scholarship system begins to be felt in Bombay. Here again a provision of free studentships for promising boys is made, but a scholarship system is meant to do more than meet school fees; it is intended to meet also the extra cost of leaving home and of studying at the middle class school. In Bombay the provision of scholarships at this stage is very small. The Bombay Department argues that the middle schools are filled, and that there is no need to stimulate a demand for secondary education. Its policy is to economise in secondary education, and so long as the schools maintained by the Department are filled it would be a waste of money to supply scholarships. The Secretary of State expressed entire approbation of the policy pursued by Sir A. Grant in his endeavours to check the increase in departmental secondary schools, and one of the measures adopted with that object was to reduce the number of scholarships. To these arguments it must be replied that, whatever may be the advantages of the Bombay system, it does not provide all those facilities for poor or clever pupils which the Despatch of 1854 advocated. Moreover, the absence of a liberal scholarship system in that Presidency prevents the Department from offering to aided schools that encouragement and assistance which, as we have pointed out, can be so naturally supplied by a chain of scholarships. In Bengal, on the other hand, the system provides for all these wants. In this Province there is a fundamental division between inferior and superior primary schools, and in order to bridge over the separation between them, lower primary scholarships have been established, which are tenable in upper primary schools. Inasmuch as nearly all the primary schools in Bengal are aided institutions, the Department cannot impose upon their managers any provision of free studentships, and hence the necessity for a provision of scholarships is apparent. Between the primary schools and the secondary schools a further connection is established by a still more liberal provision of scholarships tenable in middle

schools. It has been urged, however, that the provision is inadequate. It is true that only in rare cases of exceptional ability is it necessary to bridge the gulf by such means. Thus Sir George Campbell's Resolution of September 1872 expressed the intention of the Bengal Government in these terms: "To the really able boys at pathshalas opportunities for advancement will be offered by a chain of scholarships, the gainers of which can pass through the several grades of schools up to a University degree." Still it may be questioned whether the present provision of primary scholarships is equal to the requirements of a primary system constituted as that of Bengal is. The statistics available to the Commission do not enable us to make any distinction between the pupils in village and town schools, and we cannot therefore determine what number of village school-boys have ascended to a superior primary school by means of scholarships. But the number of scholarships has received no great addition since their first institution by Sir George Campbell, although the number of schools which may compete for them has largely increased. In 1881-82 there were only 651 scholarships tenable in middle schools for competition amongst more than 850,000 pupils. Much therefore remains to be done in extending scholarships for primary schools; but the importance of the system for Bengal has been explained. Speaking generally, it may be said that in proportion as any provincial system of primary education rests less upon Government schools than upon aided or indigenous institutions, so does the need for developing a scholarship system as contrasted with that of free studentships increase. This has been fully recognised in the Central Provinces. In Madras, however, no scholarships are given in primary schools, though their establishment is under consideration. In considering secondary education it will be seen what provision is made for scholarships in middle schools. But under the circumstances it is clear that in Madras a liberal system of providing assistance for primary scholars proceeding to secondary schools is urgently required. This want is emphasised by a passage in the Madras Report, in which it is stated that the children of peasants have no special provision made for their education in middle schools, and take no advantage of these institutions. The only public service examination in Madras is the middle school examination, and therefore the door to the public service is closed against the peasant proprietary. In other Provinces the need will be felt more largely, as the proportion of aided primary schools increases. The subject will be noticed under secondary education, and it is therefore sufficient to remark here that we there recommend that "in all Provinces the system of scholarships be so arranged that, as suggested in the Despatch of 1854, they may form connecting links between the different grades of institutions."

196. Prizes.—No notice is taken of prizes in the Report of our Bengal Provincial Committee, but rewards amounting to nearly Rs. 30,000 are distributed to pupils at the central examinations. In Bombay, the North-Western Provinces, and the Punjab, regular but moderate provision is made for prizes in departmental schools in each Inspector's Division, and the same plan is followed in the Central Provinces. In short, under the departmental systems encouragement by means of prizes is never neglected, but where the primary schools are aided institutions, no aid is afforded to the managers except in Bengal in providing prizes for their pupils.

197. Public Patronage*—"The most efficacious of all encouragements to the spread of education is that supplied by the bestowal of public appointments upon educated candidates. Unfortunately no lever for raising education is less systematically applied. In many parts of India the responsible officers

entrusted with public patronage, yielding to the solicitations of friends or following their own discretion, regard the imposition of a fixed standard of qualification as a troublesome trammel. The appointments to which we here refer are of two sorts—those which may be conferred without any limitation as to the area of selection, and those which must be conferred as the hereditary possession of certain families. In reference to these two classes the Despatch¹ of 1854 remarked: “We have learnt with satisfaction that the subject “ of gradually making some educational qualification necessary to the confirmation of these hereditary officers is under the consideration of the Government “ of Bombay, and that a practical educational test is now insisted upon for persons “ employed in many offices under Government.⁵” Ten years before the date of this Despatch, Lord Hardinge, in an order which will be found at page 44 of Mr. Howell’s “Note on Education prior to 1854 and in 187071,” had attempted to throw open the public service to qualified young men; and, with a view to promote the diffusion of knowledge among the humbler classes of the people, had directed that, “ even in the selection of persons to fill the lowest offices under “ Government, respect be had to the relative acquirements of the candidates, “ and that in every instance a naan who can read or write be preferred to one “ who cannot.⁵” How this order became and remained a dead letter is explained in that Note. With respect to higher appointments in most Provinces of India some examination held for boys attending schools of secondary instruction is regarded as fixing a test of qualification for the public service. But it is only in Bombay and the Central Provinces that real and successful endeavours have been made from a very early date to connect primary schools with the public service, and thus to stimulate the diffusion of a thorough primary education, and to open the subordinate ranks of Government service to all classes of the people in a practical way which no scholarship system could so well effect. The theory of the Bombay primary⁶ has been explained. It recognises the fact that the great bulk of the rural population can never afford to leave their villages for a course of instruction in the town. To the masses the village school must supply the whole of their education. The revenue system of Bombay creates a village accountant and registrar in every village. The District officers do not desire to recruit their local establishments from a single class of urban residents. From the very outset, therefore, the District and the educational officers were alike interested in the success of the rural schools. Even before 1852 appointments in the lower grades of the public service in Bombay were thrown open to competition at examinations held in each District. The standard was subsequently raised. When standards V and VI were added to the Bombay primary course the present public examination in standard VI was instituted, and the successful candidate now receives a certificate qualifying him for the subordinate grades of the public service. To the higher grades of the service a similar door was opened by the addition of a special **standard** of examination to the ordinary middle-school course. No candidate can obtain an appointment in the public service in Bombay who cannot produce a certificate of having passed one or other of the examinations. The orders of Government do not, however, touch the case of the menial offices to which the latter part of Lord Hardinge’s Resolution referred. After several years’ rigid **enforcement** of these rules, the public service examinations have come to be **regarded** by the public generally as fitting standards of qualification for employment in the various professions of commerce and business. It is held that the popularity of the higher primary standards and the widespread demand for such schools are very largely due to the policy of the Bombay Government in regu-

lating the patronage of their District Officers in the manner indicated. In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts the Bombay officers who laid down the lines of the Education Department advocated the introduction of the same system, **but** the rules at first prescribed were soon relaxed, and District Officers bestowed the **appointments** at their disposal without any reference to a public service **examination**. Recently some improvement has been effected, and selected candidates are required to produce a certificate from the Department. But the heads of offices may relax these rules, and it is not the practice for any candidate to obtain a certificate until he has been provisionally selected. Under such a system the full advantages of a public service examination cannot be realised.

198. Recommendations as to public Patronage.—It does not appear that the standard of primary education has yet reached so high a point in all Provinces of **TnrHa.** as to render it possible to open the door to the public service directly out of the primary school course rather than of the middle school course. We have therefore inserted a Recommendation bearing on this subject in Chapter V, and shall here confine our attention to the lowest offices of public employment. We recommend **that the principle laid down in Lord Hardinge's Resolution, dated October //, 1844, be re-affirmed, i.e., that in selecting persons to fill the lowest offices under Government, preference be always given to those who can read and write.** As regards the hereditary offices of village Tiparlmfln and accountant, we are aware that in many cases a knowledge of reading and writing is insisted upon, but it seems both practicable and advantageous that a higher standard of qualification should be enforced. We therefore recommend that the attention of the Local Governments be called to this matter, and **that the Local Governments, especially those of Bombay and the North- Western Provinces, be invited to consider the advisability of carrying out the suggestion contained in paragraph g6 of the Despatch of 1854, namely, of malemg some educational qualification necessary to the confirmation of hereditary village officers sttch as patels and hmbardars.**

199. Night Schools; and School Hours.—Our information regarding the extension of night schools is scant. The subject finds no separate place in the Reports of our Provincial Committees of Madras and Bengal. At the sama time, long before Sir George Campbell drew attention to them, their importance had been fully recognised in Bengal, and night-classes have in many cases been attached to improved village schools. No statistics are, however, given. In Bombay, and to a much less extent in the Central Provinces, .this class of institution is established on a definite basis. In Bombay there were, in 1881-82, 3,919 scholars attending 134 vernacular night schools, of which 84 were departmental, 48 inspected, and 2 aided. The schools are found in every Division of the Presidency, and are as popular with the Muhammadans as with the Hindus. In addition to them there were 223 night-classes attached to day schools in the Southern Division which were attended by 4,962 persons. At Belgaum one of these classes is attended by 90 students, of whom 60 belong to the low caste of Mahais. The attendance of lo'w-caste men at night Schools is an interesting fact. At Kaira, in Gujarat, the night school is exclusively attended by low-caste men, and the townspeople have frequently remonstrated against their education. The schools are chiefly attended by men who have to labour in the day-time, and the instruction is limited to the barest rudiments of reading and writing, and a little ciphering. They have proved a great success, and more are demanded than the Department can supply; In Bombay the Theistic Association has opened two aided night schools for working men and messengers, and they are

lating the patronage of their District Officers in the manner indicated. In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts the Bombay officers who laid down the lines of the Education Department advocated the introduction of the same system, but the rules at first prescribed were soon relaxed, and District Officers bestowed the appointments at their disposal without any reference to a public service examination. Recently some improvement has been effected, and selected candidates are required to produce a certificate from the Department. But the heads of offices may relax these rules, and it is not the practice for any candidate to obtain a certificate until he has been provisionally selected. Under such a system the full advantages of a public service examination cannot be realised.

198. Recommendations as to public Patronage.—It does not appear that the standard of primary education has yet reached so high a point in all Provinces of India, as to render it possible to open the door to the public service directly out of the primary school course rather than of the middle school course. We have therefore inserted a Recommendation bearing on this subject in Chapter V, and shall here confine our attention to the lowest offices of public employment. We recommend *that the principle laid down in Lord Hardinge's Resolution, dated October 11, 1844, be re-affirmed, i.e., that in selecting persons to fill the lowest offices under Government, preference be always given to those who can read and write.* As regards the hereditary offices of village Tiparlmfln and accountant, we are aware that in many cases a knowledge of reading and writing is insisted upon, but it seems both practicable and advantageous that a higher standard of qualification should be enforced. We therefore recommend that the attention of the Local Governments be called to this matter, and *that the Local Governments, especially those of Bombay and the North- Western Provinces, be invited to consider the advisability of carrying out the suggestion contained in paragraph 66 of the Despatch of 1854, namely, of making some educational qualification necessary to the confirmation of hereditary village officers such as patels and hmbardars.*

199. Night Schools; and School Hours.—Our information regarding the extension of night schools is scant. The subject finds no separate place in the Reports of our Provincial Committees of Madras and Bengal. At the same time, long before Sir George Campbell drew attention to them, their importance had been fully recognised in Bengal, and night-classes have in many cases been attached to improved village schools. No statistics are, however, given. In Bombay, and to a much less extent in the Central Provinces, this class of institution is established on a definite basis. In Bombay there were, in 1881-82, 3,919 scholars attending 134 vernacular night schools, of which 84 were departmental, 48 inspected, and 2 aided. The schools are found in every Division of the Presidency, and are as popular with the Muhammadans as with the Hindus. In addition to them there were 223 night-classes attached to day schools in the Southern Division which were attended by 4,962 persons. At Belgaum one of these classes is attended by 90 students, of whom 60 belong to the low caste of Mahais. The attendance of low-caste men at night Schools is an interesting fact. At Kaira, in Gujarat, the night school is exclusively attended by low-caste men, and the townspeople have frequently remonstrated against their education. The schools are chiefly attended by men who have to labour in the day-time, and the instruction is limited to the barest rudiments of reading and writing, and a little ciphering. They have proved a great success, and more are demanded than the Department can supply; In Bombay the Theistic Association has opened two aided night schools for working men and messengers, and they are

they and other once dominant races still require special help. Finally, abject poverty has fallen to the lot not merely of certain classes of the community, but even of the lower strata of the very highest castes, who are altogether unable to find the few annas required for their school-fees. Thus, four causes exist which practically place the four classes of Indian society to which they severally apply under the ban of ignorance. They may be summarised as want of civilisation, lowness of caste, loss of political status, and extreme poverty. In Chapter IX we shall revert to this subject. We here confine ourselves to a brief notice of what has been done for the primary education of each of these four classes, and to a statement of our Recommendations.

201. Education of aboriginal Races—In three Provinces of India—Bombay, Bengal, and the Central Provinces—the problem of attracting to school the aboriginal population, numbering 932,000 in Bombay, 2,056,000 in Bengal, and 1,754,000 in the Central Provinces, or altogether about 74 per cent, of the whole aboriginal population of India, is beset with difficulties. Two attempts demand special notice here. The first was unsuccessful, though it deserved a better fate. In the Western Division of the " forest-reserves " in the Central Provinces, endeavours were made in 1870 to attract the Kurkus to certain special schools which were placed under the joint control of the Forest and the Education Departments. The instruction was to be as simple as possible, and a carpenter's and blacksmith's shop was to be attached to each school. The prospect of forest employment was held out as an inducement to the people to send their children to the schools. Experience proved that European supervision was essential, and the scheme failed for want of it. In Bengal another plan was tried. The education of the various non-Hindu races that inhabit the frontier tracts of Bengal was entrusted to the zeal of missionary societies, and liberal grants were from very early days given to those who were prepared to undertake the task. Thus the Kols and other aboriginal races in Chota Nagpur, the Santhals on the confines of Bengal proper, the Khonds in Orissa, and the Paharias of Darjeeling, as well as the Khasis and others in Assam, have all received some measure of attention. The Missionaries have been specially successful in training young Santhals and Kols as teachers, and have overcome a great difficulty by thus providing masters acceptable to the tribes. At Ranchi, in Chota Nagpur, the Berlin mission has maintained for many years an artizan class for Kol pupils, which with liberal aid from Government has been very successful. But while the bulk of the work has been entrusted to missionaries, the Department has not been idle. Not only has it maintained primary schools for the aboriginal tribes in Eastern Bengal, but it has also established a few secondary schools for their benefit at Chaibasain Singbhoom, at Darjeeling, and in Chittagong. Altogether by one agency or another nearly 20,000 aboriginal children are being educated. In Bombay, the departmental system has made some progress which though not so conspicuous as in Bengal is greater than that reported by the Department in the Central Provinces. There are now 2,713 aboriginal boys at schools, of whom 2,176 are in cess schools. But this success purchased by great efforts gives little hope of overtaking the enormous task before Government. Experience has proved that sympathetic European effort is essential, and that no Department can adequately supply this want. It is hopeless to depend on indigenous schools, but that consideration does not preclude other forms of aided enterprise. Meanwhile the Departments must continue to labour; but ultimately we look to the philanthropy of missionary and other societies to cope with the special difficulties in the way. We therefore recommend *that primary education be extended in*

backward Districts, specially in those inhabited mainly by aboriginal races, by the instrumentality of the Department pending the creation of school-boards, or by specially liberal grants-in-aid to those who are willing to set up and maintain schools. We shall have to revert to this subject in a subsequent Chapter, but it may be mentioned here that we are so convinced that it is from missionary agency that most may be expected in educating the aboriginal races, that we have emphatically re-affirmed as the principle on which aid should be given to bodies willing to undertake the work, that of entire abstention from interference with any religious instruction which such bodies may choose to give.

202. Low-castes and Out-castes.—It will be more convenient to defer until Chapter IX a brief account of our discussions regarding the rights of these neglected classes of the community to receive education. In Provinces where primary education is almost wholly built upon the indigenous system, we fear that in the present state of society, even where their right is admitted in theory by local sentiment, low-caste boys actually receive few or none of the advantages of education. In those Provinces, however, where the schools are more directly under the control of Government, more or less progress has been made in securing for low-caste boys a recognition of their legitimate claims. In Bombay the greatest attention has been paid to the matter; and whereas in 1871 there were only 592 low-caste boys at school, there are now 3,512, of whom 2,862 are in departmental day schools. In our Chapter on indigenous schools we have insisted on the division of aided schools into two classes, “special” and “other primary” schools. In all but “special” schools the right of all castes to receive instruction is to be affirmed, and a due proportion is to be maintained between these two classes of institutions. In addition to this precaution, we have recommended that special grants be given to the managers of aided schools on account of low-caste children, and we have now to make somewhat similar Recommendations with regard to Government schools. We recommend *that all primary schools wholly maintained at the cost of the school-boards, and all primary schools that are aided from the same fund and are not registered as special schools, be understood to be open to all castes and classes of the community: and that such a proportion between special and other primary schools be maintained in each school-district as to ensure a proportionate provision for the education of all classes, special aid being assignable* if necessary, on account of low-caste pupils.*

203. Depressed Races—It is unnecessary to anticipate the full review, to be given in Chapter IX, of the measures taken to attract to the State primary schools those classes which, like the Muhammadans, have lost the special privileges of a ruling race. Their claims have received considerable attention, and their progress is noticed in the annual reports of the Department in most of the Provinces of India. But we have adopted certain Recommendations for furthering the object in view* which will be set forth, in the Chapter referred to.

204* Poor Classes.—As this subject will require fuller treatment hereafter, our remarks in this place will be confined to a brief introduction to the Recommendations which we have adopted. A poor law is unknown in India. The rules of caste enjoin the performance of those charitable duties, by the performance of which the relief of the destitute is distributed over the area of the family and even of the whole caste. In every caste, not excluding Brahmans, cases of great poverty exist. But as the caste descends in the social scale, the instances of poverty increase, and the well-to-do are less able

to render aid to the poorer members of their class. The best remedy is perhaps to relax the rule which requires that education, even in schools which are not entirely supported but only aided by the State, should not be purely gratuitous. "We therefore recommend *that in all board-schools, a certain 'proportion of pupils be admissible as free students on the ground of poverty ; and in the case of special schools established for the benefit of the poorer classes, a general or larger exemption from pay ment of fees be allowed under proper authority for special reasons.* There may be schools which specially undertake the education of the poor, and which, under the operation of the above rule, will be unable to charge fees, and must thus depend upon charitable assistance and grants from the State. The grants which they may earn under the result system will be very small, and their case seems to deserve special encouragement. We therefore recommend *that assistance be given to schools and orphanages in which poor children are taught reading, writing, and counting, with or without mammal work,*

205. Brief Notice of Female Schools ,—The history and condition of female education is a matter of such importance that a separate Chapter will be devoted to its consideration. With very rare exceptions, the whole of an Indian girrs instruction is comprised within the brief years of her attendance at a primary school. The age varies with different castes and classes of the community and in different parts of the country. But only a small proportion of girls continue at school beyond the age of ten years. Here and there a Brahman girl may be seen as old as twelve, and occasionally a Parsi or a Brahmo girl will remain up to the age of sixteen. These ages sufficiently indicate that it is under primary instruction that the chief statistics regarding female education in India must be sought. Those statistics will be analysed elsewhere; and it is only necessary to note here, in a Chapter which is mainly concerned with the education of boys, a few points which must be borne in mind whenever Tables of figures bearing on primary education are considered. Statistics of female education exert a most disturbing effect, not only upon percentages of attendance in primary schools, but especially upon calculations of cost and expenditure. While there were in 1881-82, nearly 2,400,000 boys under primary instruction in the nine Provinces of India with which we are dealing, there were only 122,806 girls at school. The percentage of children at school to the total population of school-going age was 8*29; hut of boys at school to the male population of that age it was 15*48, and of girls to female population only *81. These differences are sufficiently striking. But if we confine our attention exclusively to the statistics given in this Chapter, there were 2,061,541 children in the public primary schools, of whom only 119,647 were girls. Thus, while 12*55 per cent, of boys of school-going age were at school, only *80 per cent, of the girls of that age were attending public schools. The order in which according to departmental returns the chief Provinces of India stand in respect to the progress of female education as tested by the percentage of pupils at school to the total female population of school-going age, is as follows: (1) Bombay, (2) Madras, (3) Punjab, (4) Central Provinces, (5) Bengal, (6) North-Western Provinces and Oudh. Throughout the whole of India the order in which the various classes of the population avail themselves of the opportunity of instructing their daughters is as follows: (1) Parsis, (2) Native Christians, (3) Sikhs, (4) Hindus, (5) Muhammadans. This fact throws some light upon the different progress made in the several Provinces. But it is in statistics of expenditure that the greatest confusion is caused by the inclusion of statistics for male and female, education under a common head. In aided schools, for instance, the annual cost to the State of educating each girl

is nearly Rs. 3-6, whilst for a boy it is only Re. 1. In a Government school it is Rs. 5-8, against Rs. 3-12 for a boy. The cost varies materially in different Provinces. Leaving out Coorg, it is highest in the Punjab, where a girl in an aided school costs the State Rs. 4-3. Of the larger Provinces, it is least in Bombay where it costs Rs. 2-6. These and other differences will appear on a reference to the statistical Tables at the end of our Report. It is only necessary to bear in mind that if the cost of primary education in any Province appears to be comparatively large, it must be enquired what proportion of the cost is due to female education, and in the case of Normal schools, what are the charges incurred in the training of female teachers.

206. The Relation of Boards to primary Education—We have now to enter upon a most important part of our enquiry, namely, the function and powers of Local Boards in regard to primary education. The gradual extension of self-government has created certain corporate organisations which represent popular power in the country and the town. Country boards are called in Madras and in Bombay Local Fund Boards, and elsewhere District Committees. The circle of the board's influence is sometimes co-extensive with the area of the District, and at others with the area of the sub-divisions of Districts, which are called talukas or tahsils. The jurisdiction of the boards or committees within these rural circles usually excludes the larger towns or cities, which form municipalities under the control of their own Municipal Boards or committees. The obvious advantage of connecting the education of the masses with local popular organisations has long been recognised. But as the development of self-government over the immense area included in the geographical expression, India, has proceeded on no uniform basis, and has even varied materially within each Province, so the control which the several boards have acquired over primary schools differs in every possible degree. It might have been expected that a considerable uniformity would have attended the growth of municipal institutions, as the conditions of life in the larger cities of India are so much more uniform than can be expected in rural tracts, but the interest shown in education by municipal corporations, where such exist, varies considerably. In the Punjab, applications for increased contributions for schools find a liberal response; in Madras, municipal assistance is said to be inadequate, but it is far more generously accorded than in Bombay, where only 1 □ 17 per cent, of municipal income is spent on primary schools. In Bengal the town councils are still less liberal. The difference, however, between municipal and local boards in the various Provinces is not merely one of public spirit or of interest in education. Their control is in one Province financial and in another administrative. Here it extends only over Government or municipal schools, there it embraces private effort as well. In Bombay it is described as real, and in the North-Western Provinces as nominal. In no part of India is the charge of primary education made obligatory by law on town boards; but the Local Fund Boards in many Provinces are bound by law to expend certain funds on elementary schools. It thus happens that the relations of the boards to primary education vary materially; and this makes it necessary to explain the actual condition of affairs in each part of India separately, without any attempt to generalise or reconcile essential differences by one vague and common description. Having explained generally the present position of affairs in each Province, we shall give a brief summary of the suggestions which have been offered by the witnesses and in the memorials presented to us, concluding with a statement of the Recommendations which we have adopted.

207. Madras: Boards, and Suggestions regarding them—In Madras both the Municipal and the Local Fund Boards maintain their own schools, and

also aid private schools. The initiative in preparing their budgets is taken by the ^{Education} Department, whose officers submit an estimate to the official President of the Board for incorporation in the general annual budget of the town or District. Practically, the Inspector's estimate is accepted as a general rule, and when once the budget has received the sanction, of Government, it not merely limits the expenditure of the board on the object proposed in the estimate, but prevents any transfer of allotment from one school to another. In the case of aided schools the boards are obliged to pay for all grants by results earned in the three lowest standards, but they have the right of reducing the scale of grants and of refusing to admit any school to be examined. In other respects they must conform to the rules laid down by Government in the Grant-in-aid Code. So far, then, the financial control of the Madras boards involves the acceptance or modification of a budget drawn up by the Inspector, and a discretionary power to reduce the scale of grants and to refuse to admit for PTaminatinn a school whose earnings after admission they cannot decline to pay. In the matter of control, they are unable to interfere with aided schools; but in their own schools they have in theory the power of regulating the fees and the course of studies. As a general rule, however, the course of study is determined by the Inspector; while the boards usually exercise the power of filing the rate of fees, and are inclined to fix them very low. The Madras system, especially in its inclusion of aided schools, is in theory and practice more extended than that of Bombay, but in their financial administration the boards in the adjoining Presidency would appear to be more independent. This independence is perhaps due to some extent to the fact that the Bombay local fund boards have hardly any concern with aided schools, and merely manage their own cess schools.

The witnesses who have given evidence before the Commission in Madras are agreed on two points, that municipalities should set aside a fixed proportion of their income for education, and that the local boards should give a larger share of the local cess to education. They are divided as to the precise amount that should be so assigned. One witness considers that 5 to 7 per cent, of municipal income should be allotted for education. As regards the proper share of local rates, opinions vary from an assignment of one-third to one-sixth. It appears that in the nine years which followed the introduction of the Local Funds Act IV of 1871, education received on the average 9 per cent, of the local fund income derived from rates and taxes only, while of the whole local fund income it received only a little more than 6 per cent. According to the wording of section 36 of Act IV of 1871, which assigns to "the road fund" or public works division of the budget not less than two-thirds of the land cess, together with the net proceeds of all tolls, the assignment to education cannot be called illegal; but it was certainly expected, when the Act was passed, that it would provide 8-J lakhs for education; whereas in 1881-82 the actual expenditure charged to local funds was not 5J lakhs. Greater differences of opinion are expressed in regard to the classes of schools which should be supported at the expense of the educational fund thus created. Some witnesses would not limit the assignment of the fund to any class of institution, but would leave it to the discretion of the Inspector. . The general opinion, however, is that the boards should control their own expenditure, and that the allotment should not be diverted from primary or lower secondary instruction to education of a higher kind. To this control certain limitations are proposed. Some would insist on the appointment of qualified teachers, and Mr. Justice T. Mutuswamy Aiyar amongst other witnesses lays great stress on the establishment of Normal schools for their supply. Many witnesses also consider that the Department should be allowed to

intervene, and at least to suggest, if not to prescribe, the course and method of instruction. This power of intervention is regarded as more necessary in the case of local boards than of municipal corporations. One witness would give the Educational Inspectors a place *ex-officio* on the boards; another would make the Inspectors quite independent. A third, on the other hand, would leave the boards independent administrators of the grant-in-aid system, but allow them no power of altering the rules without the sanction of Government. On the whole, the general tendency of the Madras evidence favours the administration of primary and lower secondary education by local boards, whether urban or rural, subject to the general control of the Education Department; the enforcement of a contribution from municipal funds; and a more liberal assignment from local rates.

208. Bombay: Boards, and Suggestions regarding them—la Bombay neither Municipal nor Local Fund Boards have as a rule any direct concern with aided schools. A few indigenous schools receive aid which is paid for out of local funds, but the boards have practically little control in the matter. Municipal boards are permitted by law (Bombay Act VI of 1873) to spend their income on education; and in their discretion they for the most part leave it alone, preferring, as might be expected, to throw the charge on provincial revenues or else on the neighbouring District Board. It may be said that, with the exception of Sukkur in Sind, no municipality in Bombay has hitherto taken the active part which it might have been expected to take in managing elementary education. As shown in Chapter III, Section A of the Bombay Provincial Report, the contributions from provincial revenues for the support of primary education in the towns of Bombay bear no adequate proportion either to the local resources of such towns, or to the contributions from the same revenues to the support of village schools. A partial change is immediately to be made in this matter, and primary schools will shortly be placed under the control of Municipal Boards, but no provision has yet been proposed, for compelling the corporations to provide increased funds.

With the Local Fund Boards, whether the case is quite different. They administer the whole fund on which primary education rests, and they prepare their own budgets, which show separately the share of the cess spent on education. They transfer or close schools at their pleasure; they regulate the fees, and without their authority no departmental primary school can be established. But they do not interfere with the studies, or appoint the master. The local fund income is quite distinct from provincial revenues, and the educational share of that income is equally distinct. In fact, the school fund might be defined, as precisely as the school-board fund is defined in England by section 53 of the Act of 1870. In this respect the Bombay system differs materially from that of the North-Western Provinces as will presently appear. With this distinct educational fund, which is entirely spent on elementary education and is supplemented by a grant from provincial revenues, the boards provide for their cess schools, or Government primary schools, as they are commonly called to distinguish them from the aided indigenous or other schools under private management. In the North-Western Provinces the local fund revenue is paid into the treasury to the credit of provincial income, from which an allotment is made for expenditure by the local fund committee. But in Bombay the process is entirely reversed. The provincial allotment is paid to the credit of the local fund committee, and any unexpended balance at the end of the year remains the property of the rural board. Financially, the power of the local boards is complete, and their practical control over

education is only limited by their want of confidence in themselves and by the delegation of their own functions to the departmental officers. The departmental officers act, however, under instructions from the board.

The evidence given by witnesses before the Commission in the Bombay Presidency is full of references to the relations of municipal and local boards to the Department of Public Instruction. It deals with the question both of finance and of administration. In regard to finance, the proportion of the cess upon the land which should be given to primary schools is fixed by rules which have the sanction of law, and any unexpended balance lapses to the educational fund, not to the general local fund, and still less to the provincial fund as in Northern India. Hence on these points no question has been raised by witnesses in Bombay. But the complaint has been made that the local fund is properly a rural fund, and should be spent on the villages which contribute it, and not in the towns which only contribute a very small proportion of the cess. Several witnesses of great experience have urged that there should be a redistribution of the financial burden of supporting primary schools, which would set free for rural education funds paid by rural Districts and now appropriated by municipalities. Their view is supported at considerable length by the Bombay Provincial Committee. Other witnesses have in the same sense argued that the time has arrived when municipal boards must be compelled to make more adequate provision for primary education out of the funds at their disposal. While all witnesses are more or less agreed on the question of finance, opinions are divided on the point whether any local board should administer education above the standard of primary schools. It is further argued that if boards are to be entrusted with the task of aiding private schools it will be necessary to give private managers financial rights, and especially to protect the low-caste population against the indifference or opposition of those higher castes which are sure to command all executive power on the boards.

20§. Bengal: Boards, and Suggestions regarding them.—We have already mentioned that the approval of the Secretary of State to the proposal of the Government of India for giving Bengal the financial provision upon which the systems of primary education rest in other parts of India, has not yet resulted in the imposition of an educational cess, or in the allotment to education of a share in the cesses already levied. Accordingly in Bengal there are no local fund boards charged with administrative powers over schools. A special education committee exists at the head-quarters of each District under the presidency of the Collector, but it rather connects the control of education by the Department with a local official board than invests with responsible powers over primary schools an independent organisation holding control over local funds. For the school committee described above has no financial, and little administrative, control over elementary education. The municipal boards occupy no better position. Some of them spontaneously encourage special teachers or institutions. But they exercise no systematic or recognised control at present over primary education; and this need occasion little surprise, since in no other Province of India do municipal bodies exhibit greater indifference to the claims of education upon the town funds. Even in the city of Calcutta no steps have been taken in this direction, though so far back as 1873 Sir G. Campbell expressed a hope that the municipality of Calcutta would move the Legislature to permit the expenditure of some part of its large income upon primary schools for the children of the Calcutta poor.

The evidence of witnesses dwelt on two points; the liability of municipalities to contribute more liberally to education, and the functions of the self-

government boards that may hereafter be created. On both these points opinions differed. The Honourable Kristodas Pal objected to throwing on town boards charges for primary education, while Maulavi Sayyid Amir Hussein would insist on their making proper provision and would examine their budgets to see that they did so. The Bengal Provincial Committee remark that, under recent orders, much of the cost of zila schools and the whole cost of vernacular schools in towns will fall upon municipalities. As regards the advisability of entrusting rural boards with the charge of even primary schools, some witnesses have expressed doubts, but a few have suggested that secondary as well as primary education should be entrusted to them.

210. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Boards, and Suggestions regarding them.—In the North-Western Provinces both the practice and the theory of local control had been well developed before Act XVIII of 1871 was passed. Under that Act, which was incorporated into Act III of 1878, not only is the education provision lumped up with the provision for other local wants, but to the Local Boards is allotted, as an act of grace, the income which in reality belongs to them. Unspent allotments are therefore not a saving to local funds as in Bombay, but lapse to the provincial treasury. The constitution of the local fund boards has hitherto been strongly official, but it will become more popular under the new Bill now before the Legislature. The control of education is not managed by the general District or sub-divisional committee as in Bombay, but by special sub-committees who are guided by rules issued in 1877. Their powers, such as they are, extend over aided schools, and over middle class vernacular and lower primary schools. They are allowed to appoint teachers, but not to regulate the course of studies. Their financial powers are confined to accepting a budget drawn up, and their position generally is described as that of executive department, rather than, administrative corporations controlling municipal boards make some moderate assignments to them, and their attention to the claims of primary schools is invited drawn up by the Department of Public Instruction. But these contributions are optional, and do not seem to carry with them any real control over the expenditure of the resources which their liberality provides.

The witnesses and memorialists from the North-Western Provinces have generally expressed far greater confidence than those of Bengal in the administrative capacity of rural and town boards. Speaking, however, of the existing system, the Provincial Committee describe it as follows: "The present system of education committees in the North-Western Provinces can hardly be considered other than a failure. It is condemned by nearly all the witnesses, is praised with great reservation by the Director of Public Instruction, and has, we hope, been proved to be a very different system in its origin and development from what was intended by the Legislature when passing "Act XVIII of 1871." The Honourable Sayyid Ahmad, Elan Bahadur, suggests that local committees should have the power to frame annual budgets, and to manage entirely all vernacular schools; while another witness would entrust both primary and lower middle schools to boards, giving them a consultative voice in higher education. Six witnesses have given strong testimony in favour of placing more trust and power, in matters both of finance and of administration, in the hands of local boards. On the other hand, there are a few who consider that the committees as at present constituted are unfit for their work. It is further urged by others that the inevitable result of dependence on non-official committees is the transfer of control

from Educational Inspectors to Revenue officials. But on the whole, the superior weight of testimony inclines to placing in the hands of local boards increased control over primary education, and to separating the funds for education from other resources entrusted to rural and urban committees.

211. Punjab: Boards, and Suggestions regarding them.—The Punjab system is very similar to that just described. Under Act "V" of 1873, which repealed Act XX of 1871, the Lieutenant-Governor, after appropriating one-fourth of the total proceeds for famine purposes, may allot such sums as he pleases for education and other local wants. For each District a committee or board is appointed to administer the allotment thus made. In matters of control, the boards in the Punjab are theoretically entrusted with the management of schools, but in practice they are unable to close any institution without the sanction of Government. The municipal committees in the same Province are given the share of the local fund cess which belongs to them, and are expected to supplement it by contributions from the town income. In this respect the Punjab system is more equitable than that of Bombay. The corporation usually exercises control over its own schools within the municipality through the official president or the secretary to the board. It must, however, be understood that both the president and the secretary can only derive their authority from the corporation, which if it chose might, and occasionally does, exercise considerable influence over education both primary and secondary. It should be noticed that municipalities in this Province contribute more towards education than in any other part of India.

Very voluminous and contradictory evidence has been given by the witnesses for the Punjab, not merely as to the capacity of the boards to manage schools, but also as to the funds now assigned for education. The weight of testimony is, however, strongly in favour of entrusting both the expenditure and the management of the educational cess to such boards. As to the amount of control to be reserved opinions differ. In the opinion of some witnesses the funds contributed by municipalities are still inadequate, and they urge that a larger proportion of municipal revenues should be reserved by law for the extension of primary education. The charge brought against the Department of having diverted funds from primary to higher education is neither supported by the figures given in the Provincial Report, nor justified by the precise letter of the law, which does not assign to educational purposes any specific share of the local fund income.

212. Assam: Boards.—While the Province of Assam was included in the larger Province of Bengal no local rates were levied in it. But in November 1879, Regulation No. III of that year received the assent of the Governor General. Under Section 12 of this Regulation the Chief Commissioner is empowered to allot, from the proceeds of the local rates levied under it, such amount as he thinks fit for expenditure on the construction and repair of school-houses, the maintenance and inspection of schools, the training of teachers, and the establishment of scholarships. In accordance with a circular issued, by the Chief Commissioner, school sub-committees have been appointed subordinate to the district committees, and they are entrusted with the powers which formerly vested in the district committees of Public Instruction. They exercise a complete control and supervision over primary education, but power is reserved to the Inspector of Schools to make suggestions and recommendations. The Committees are required to consider his recommendations, and in the event of dissenting from them to record their reasons. All expenditure on primary

education is now borne by the local rates. Under recent orders the powers of the boards have been extended, and they are made responsible for administering the grants-in-aid to all classes of schools in their jurisdiction, and for managing the Normal schools of the third grade.

213. Other Provinces: Boards and Rates.—In *the Central Provinces* a recent Act, which affects neither municipalities nor cantonments, has created a net work of boards with Tillage school committees subordinate to them. But prior to this year the local rate was distributed in accordance with budgets prepared by the local officers. In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts a levy of ranna and 3 pies on every rupee of land revenue is collected, and the share of it assigned to education is administered by the revenue officers. In Coorg also an educational fund is provided by the plough tax. But in all these Provinces the administration of the fund prior to 1883 rested with officials, and the school committees which watched the village schools had no power to spend any portion of it.

214. General Review of the Powers of Local Boards—Except in Bengal there is no Province of India where provision for primary education has not been made by the imposition of a local rate in which education shares. The administration of these local rates has been entrusted, except in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts and in Ooorg, to local fund committees. In Madras and Bombay the local fund income is wholly at the disposal of the local boards, but in Northern India it is subject to certain deductions for the extension of *irrigation and for the prevention of famine*. It is only the balance, after these deductions have been made, that is placed at the disposal of the boards; and should they fail to expend their whole assignment in the year, the unexpended balance lapses to provincial revenues. Again, in Madras and Bombay the practice is not uniform. In Bombay a distinct share of the local fund income is set aside by law or by statutory rules for education, and under the same rules it cannot be expended on any but primary education. But the law does not distinguish between rural and urban schools, and therefore it is not illegal to spend the cess on town schools. The ever-increasing demand which the towns are making upon a fund, essentially a rural fund, has given rise to complaints. In Madras, on the contrary, no specific share of the local fund income must be appropriated for education; and although it is in accordance with the policy of Government to spend the educational grant upon primary schools, it would not be opposed to any provision of the existing law to devote it to secondary education.

With regard to municipalities, the law is everywhere permissive, and education is a legitimate but not an imperative charge on municipal income throughout India. The funds of town corporations are, with the exception of the city of Madras, applicable under the existing law not only to primary but to higher education. The extent to which municipalities have made use of their powers will appear from the statistical Table which follows. The grants made towards education are accurately known, but the figures representing the net municipal income in 1881-82 are obtained from the Annual Administration Reports of each Province and are not entirely trustworthy. The evidence, however, given before the Commission affords proof of the unanimous conviction entertained in all Provinces of India, that the time has come when the exercise of these permissive powers can no longer be left to the discretion of municipal bodies. The enlargement of the scheme of **self-government** divides urban boards in municipal towns from rural boards, and it is necessary that the responsibilities and liabilities of both should be clearly defined. As long as the former can cast on the latter the burden of providing elementary education for the town population, the municipal authorities will be content to do nothing, and will leave the cost of maintaining these schools to be met either from local funds or else from provincial revenues.

TABLE 9.—Return showing Municipal* expenditure on primary education in the official year 1881-82.

PROVINCE.	MUNICIPAL EXPENDITURE ON PRIMARY EDUCATIONS								For Aids.	Percentage of Municipal expenditure on primary education in column 9 to total Municipal expenditure on education/†	Percentage of Municipal expenditure in column 9 to total Municipal expenditure on education/‡	Percentage of Municipal expenditure on primary education to total Municipal expenditure on education/§
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8				
Madras .	R 31,47,715	R 23,822	R 39,470	R	R 3,756	R 2,235	ft	R 69,373	R 88,018	9*37	78*70	4*09
Bombay .	68,38,205	38,257	607	...	1,785	300	...	40,949	80,423	3'6i	50*91	1*17
Bengal .	51,89,688	...	2,941	1,623	...	1,221	939	6,714	34,917		2694	4*
North-Western Provinces and Oudh .	29,36,109	26,401	5,190	1,676	1,030	1,096	300	36,693	52,069	4'65	70*47	1*77
Punjab .	28,56,328	61,327	2,631	...	7,102	5,993		77,152		16'03	50'98	5'39
Central Provinces .	11,57,221	18,832	2,032	...	1,320	240	...	22,434	34,815	7*23	64*40	301
AsBam □* /*	92,768	...	75	75	360	09	80*3	*39
Coorg .	15,099
Haidarabad Assigned Districts	1,03,320	580	120	...	406	150		1,346	1,377	*53	97*75	133
India \$. . .	3,13,36,458	1,69,219	54,066	3,299	15,489	11,224	1,229	2,54,564	4,33,330	5*7#	5876	2-03

* not only grants for the maintenance of primary schools, but scholarship and building grants to such schools and contributions to Normal Schools.
 † Exclusive of grants to European and Eurasian Schools.
 ‡ Inclusive of the expenditure from public funds on Primary Schools for Europeans and Eurasians.
 § Excluding A. in the British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.
 ** Inclusive of all Municipal grants to technical and to European and Eurasian Schools.

215. Recommendations regarding Ways and Means for primary Education.—We have to consider two questions—the claims of primary education* and the rights and duties of boards. With regard to the first question, we have to consider how far it is possible to protect the right of the masses to receive primary education not only against the encroachments of expenditure upon public works and other demands which local boards have to meet, but also against those demands which fall upon the provincial revenues. We have also to guard against the danger so prominently brought to notice in the Bombay Report, that the demands of municipal schools are apt to encroach upon funds which are raised in the villages and ought to be expended upon village schools for the rural community. In dealing with the second question, we have to bear in mind the relations of the boards to the Department, their duties towards the people, and their duties to private enterprise. Reverting to the first question we must consider how the educational fund is to be constituted, and what precautions are necessary to ensure its expenditure upon primary education. **We therefore recommend that primary education be declared to be that part of the whole system of public instruction which possesses an almost exclusive claim on local funds set apart for education and a large claim on provincial revenues.**

This Recommendation was not adopted by the Commission without long discussion and the consideration of several amendments to which we shall refer towards the close of this Chapter, when we deal with the claims of primary education upon public funds. The importance of the principles contained in it was fully understood, and when the Recommendation was carried by a large majority, it became the foundation of the Commission's decision regarding the constitution of school funds and other matters. The first part of

it declares that local funds set apart for education should be almost entirely devoted to primary education; while the second part gives prominence to the claims of primary education to a large share in provincial revenues. Both these principles have long since been established by the highest authorities in India, and in most Provinces they have guided the policy of the Department. In the Punjab, however, there has been deviation from them, the cause of which will be presently explained. But before doing so, it is necessary to state briefly the arguments by which the Recommendation was opposed and supported in our debate on February 14th, 1883- It was urged that local rates, which were levied on the land should be devoted for the education of the agricultural classes both in primary and in secondary schools; that the modern distinction of primary from secondary education was based on English precedents, and was opposed to the interests of the wealthiest though least numerous class who contribute to the cess, and who were not satisfied with a purely elementary education; and lastly that, owing to recent classification, primary education meant much less than it did when the local funds were first imposed* It was further maintained that the Despatches of 1854 and 1859 included in the education of the masses all classes of instruction, and that it was quite fair to spend local rates on the talxili and high schools to which those Despatches referred. On the other hand, the supporters of the Recommendation took their stand upon more recent Despatches which had clearly defined the interpretation attached by the Secretary of State to the phrase " education of the masses upon the policy initiated by Lord Mayo in 1870, and especially upon the Circular Orders of February nth, 1871, which had been carried out without question in every Province of India but one. Upon the second part of the Recommendation, it was urged in the course of the debate that secondary education was as important as primary, and that where the latter was sufficiently provided for by local rates, it was unnecessary to give a contribution from provincial revenues which were required to supply so many other needs. It was observed that in Bengal, where there were no local rates, the cost of all classes of education fell upon provincial revenues; but in the Punjab, where under legislative sanction local rates had been increased in the last 12 years, and where the provincial fund was wanted for other purposes, it was quite logical that the cost of primary education should be charged exclusively to local rates, and that of higher education to provincial revenues. Above all, it was urged that the Local Governments were the best judges of financial considerations, and that any hard-and-fast rule might throw the educational finance of any Province into embarrassment without doing any good to primary education. To these arguments it was replied that the principle involved in the proposal, namely, that local rates were a form of self-help, was one of extreme importance, and that the Government was bound to help those who helped themselves. In one Province, at any rate, the orders of 1871 had been thoroughly understood, and the Director in Bombay had described them as the charter of the educational rights of local boards- It was argued that the maintenance of the system followed in the Punjab endangered such rights. With reference to this argument it must be explained that on October 25th, 1869, the Government of India directed that Rule XIV should be amended in the Punjab Grant-in-aid Code and stand, as follows: " Grants-in-aid from Imperial " Funds are not admissible to purely vernacular primary schools, but special " grants may be made for limited periods where the circumstances are so excep- " tional as to justify a departure from rule" In February 1871, an important circular Resolution was issued by the Government of India to all the Local Governments explaining " on what principle it will be permissible to assign " from the sums allotted for educational purposes grants-in-aid to schools for " primary education, and it will rest with the Local Governments under the new " system of Financial control to determine in what localities and to what ex- " tent such grants shall from time to time be made." Having intimated that

the Local Governments were thus authorised to carry out the orders, the Government of India laid down for their guidance the following principles contained in paragraphs 3, 4, 5 of their Resolution No. 63, dated February 11th, 1871.

“ 3. It has been repeatedly declared by the Secretary of State that it is a primary duty to assign funds for the education of those who are least able to contribute themselves, and that the education of the masses therefore has the greatest claim on the State funds. The Government of India desires to maintain this view, but the grant-in-aid rules have in practice been found so unsuitable to primary schools that, except in special cases, such grants-in-aid are seldom sanctioned from the general revenues. It has, moreover, been repeatedly affirmed that we must look to local exertion and to local cesses to supply the funds required for the maintenance of primary schools.

« 4. These, standing orders may seem inconsistent, but they really are not so. The fact is that primary education must be supported both by Imperial Funds and by local rates. It is not by any means the policy of the Government of India to deny to primary schools assistance from Imperial Revenues ; but, on the other hand, no sum that could be spared from those revenues would suffice for the work, and local rates must be raised to effect any sensible impression on the masses. This does not lessen the obligation of Government to contribute as liberally as other demands allow, to supplement the sums raised by local effort. The true policy will be to distribute the Imperial funds, so far as such funds are available, in proportion to the amount raised by the people from each district.

“5. The amount at present allotted for primary education under the several Local Administrations is small, and it is not expected that the Local Governments will in any case diminish it. On the other hand, they will have full liberty to increase the allotment, either from retrenchments in other Services, or from savings in other branches of education; and it is permissible to assign, from the provincial grant, funds in aid of schools mainly supported by contributions from local cesses or municipal rates.”

Notwithstanding these orders the Punjab Government did not alter the lately revised rule in their Grant-in-aid Code. On the contrary, they adhered to their original policy, and in reviewing the Annual Report on Public Instruction for 1877-78* the lieutenant Governor observed—“ The decrease in the number of schools is in part due to the policy of the Government in throwing more and more upon local funds, in such towns and Districts as can afford it, the charge for popular education. The charge is indeed but nominal, the local fund being as much a portion of provincial taxation as any branch of the Government revenue/* The effect of these orders \vas to throw still further charges on local funds, and to cause a still further deviation from the principle laid down above that the “ true policy will be to distribute the Imperial Funds in proportion to the amount raised by the people from each District.9* We regard local funds, even when raised by legislative sanction from any District, as equivalent to funds raised by the people themselves, and we* attach the greatest importance to the recognition of the principle that local expenditure on, primary education should be supplemented by a provincial contribution. Our Recommendation is intended to enforce this view, which we believe to be not only sound in principle, but in strict accordance with the orders of the Government of India, and the wishes of the Secretary of State.

²¹⁶ **Recommendations regarding School Funds**—Having settled from what sources the ways and means for primary education are to be supplied, we propose to protect them against the encroachments, of other Departments by the constitution of separate funds* both for towns and rural tracts respectively, and declaring the items of which; these two funds shall be composed. Accordingly we recommend, *that provincial and local self-government boards*

keep a separate school fund. The fund should in our opinion be constituted as follows. We recommend that (i) the municipal school fund consist of—

- (a) a fair proportion of municipal revenues, to be fixed in each case by the Local Government;
- (b) the fees levied in schools wholly maintained at the cost of the municipal school fund;
- (c) any assignment that may be made to the municipal school fund from the local fund;
- (d) any assignment from provincial funds;
- (e) any other funds that may be entrusted to the municipalities for the promotion of education;
- (f) any unexpended balance of the school fund from previous years;

and that (ii) the local board school fund consist of—

- (a) a distinct share of the general local fund, which share shall not be less than a minimum proportion to be prescribed for each Province;
- (b) the fees levied in schools wholly maintained at the cost of the school fund;
- (c) any contribution that may be assigned by municipal boards;
- (d) any assignment made from provincial funds;
- (e) any other funds that may be entrusted to the local boards for the promotion of education;
- (f) any unexpended balance of the school fund from previous year.

It will be observed that we have not attempted to suggest what fixed proportion of municipal income should be devoted to education. The witnesses from various parts of India have differed in their estimates from 3 or 4 per cent, of municipal income to even 10 per cent* But the assimilation with each municipality; and though some of our number be left to the municipalities to define its amount, a majority of the Local Government could alone determine what was reasonable. On one* we are entirely agreed, that hitherto the permissive sections of law have failed to secure adequate and uniform consideration for the claims of education throughout India. We have guarded against the danger of the municipality encroaching on the rural fund, by recommending, as shown above, that a specific assignment from local funds be made to the municipality, and by proposing that each separate fund, whether municipal or rural, be granted its own separate assignment from provincial funds. This assignment from provincial revenues would naturally bear some proportion to local resources. Lastly, to avoid the recurrence of the complaints made in the North-Western Provinces that unexpended balances are lost to the educational fund, we have recommended that balances of the school fund, which may be unexpended at the end of the year, be credited to the school fund, and neither to the general local fund nor to provincial services. The creation of these distinct school funds appears to us to offer the best guarantee against the complaints which witnesses have made, sometimes perhaps without due foundation from the Punjab to Madras, that the whole of the education cess is not spent on primary schools, that education does not receive its legitimate share of the income of rural or municipal boards, or that the towns encroach upon the financial provision for village education.

217. Recommendations regarding the Rights and Duties of School-

Turning now to a consideration of the rights and duties of school-boards and of the control which they should exercise over primary education, we recommend that the general control over primary school expenditure be vested in the school-boards, whether municipal or rural, which may now exist or may hereafter be created for self-government in each Province. So far as rural boards are concerned the experiment has worked well in Bombay, and the recognition of the rights of municipal boards is only a natural develop-

ment of the same policy. We have refrained from expressing any opinion on the question whether the school-boards should be the town boards and local fund committees, or sub-committees of those boards. Each administrative unit created under the various schemes of self-government will adopt the plan which is best suited to the locality. The central boards, whether in town, taluka, or District, will probably work through village school committees, as they do in the Central Provinces. But these details can be determined on the spot, and we have deliberately avoided suggestions of too precise or uniform a character. There exists in our opinion the greatest need for variety and provincial independence in grappling with the great task of extending a thorough primary education. The relations of the boards to the Departments must, however, be precisely defined, in order to avoid friction from conflict of authority. Some departmental control is necessary, but its limits should be defined. In Chapter VIII we shall revert to this subject; but on one matter we deem it desirable here to state our Recommendation, suggested by one of the Bombay witnesses, which will promote the improvement of teachers, an object to which we attach great importance. We recommend *that the first appointment of schoolmasters in municipal or board-schools be left to the town or District boards, with the proviso that the masters be certificated or approved by the Department, and their subsequent promotion or removal be regulated by the boards subject to the approval of the Department* The boards will provide the salaries of the masters, and it seems reasonable that within certain limits they should select and control the teachers. They will also have to provide all the funds necessary for maintaining both the schools and the buildings. We recommend *that the cost of maintaining and aiding primary schools in each school-district, and the construction and repair of board school-houses > be charges against the municipal or local board school fund so created.* This Recommendation, if carried out, will introduce generally the Madras system under which the boards are responsible for aiding private enterprise. There is an obvious advantage in giving the boards control not merely over their own schools but over all the primary schools in the District or town. Their financial and administrative control over primary education would be incomplete if the Department remained responsible for aided schools, while the boards had charge of the cess schools alone. It should be the duty of the boards to deal with the whole system of primary education, to watch over the wants of all classes of the community, and to provide for all such wants whether by creating schools of their own or by aiding existing schools. We have already mentioned our Recommendations "for ensuring proportionate provision for the education of all classes,"³ for giving "special aid on account of low castes," and for providing "a proper proportion between special and other primary schools."⁵ It is only by making the boards responsible for all agencies that these results can be adequately secured. Another forcible reason presented itself to us as an argument for giving boards the fullest powers. The choice of a vernacular is in some Provinces of India, especially in the Punjab, a very perplexing question. We have discussed this subject in a previous paragraph, and it is sufficient here to state our Recommendation, which is so framed as to protect minorities. We recommend *that the vernacular in which instruction shall be imparted in any primary school, maintained by any municipal or local board, be determined by the school committee of management, subject to revision by the municipal or local board: provided that if there be any dissenting minority in the community, who represent a number of pupils sufficient to form one or more separate classes or schools, it shall be incumbent on the Department to provide for the establishment of such classes or schools, and it shall be incumbent on such municipal or local board to assign to such classes or schools a fair proportion of the whole assignable funds.* The choice of the vernacular in aided schools will, of course, rest with the managers of such schools* and will offer a valuable index to popular wishes, in each locality. In conclusion, it is only necessary to guard against boards endeavouring to crush

genous. If the public funds are entrusted to them, they must administer them as a public trust in accordance with public policy. We therefore conclude our Recommendations regarding the rights and duties of boards in their administration of primary education with the following: *that municipal and local boards administering funds in aid of primary schools adopt the rules prescribed by the Department for aiding such schools, and introduce no change therein without the sanction of the Department.*

218. Recommendation regarding Legislation.—It will be readily admitted that the constitution of the school funds proposed by us would be rendered more secure, and the rights and duties of school-boards be more clearly defined, if they were placed on a legislative basis. The question of legislation is one, however, which will be treated at length in Chapter XI of this Report. But in discussing the whole subject of primary education we adopted the following Recommendation, *that an attempt be made to secure the fullest possible provision for an extension of primary education by legislation suited to the circumstances of each Province.* This Recommendation was intended not only to secure the support of law for primary education, but also to give expression to our opinion that separate legislation should be undertaken in each Provincial Council for making laws and regulations.

219. Expenditure on primary Education.—The ways and means of primary education can best be understood by analysing the expenditure in some particular year. It may of course happen that the nominal income of any particular year exceeds the expenditure for the following reasons, but it is safer to regard the actual expenditure as equivalent to the income. The primary school fund, speaking broadly, depends on two sources of supply, the provincial grant and the local rates. The provincial grants are either assigned as special grants for specific purposes or else credited in the lump to local rates. In the former case, if they are not wholly spent, the balance lapses to the provincial fund from which it was given, and is not available for other purposes unless it is re-allotted. Therefore the real provincial grant is the amount allotted and spent, and in that sense expenditure is synonymous with income. If, on the other hand, the provincial grant is credited to local rates, it either becomes, as in Bombay, part of the educational local fund (in which case it may be treated as local income), or else as in the North-Western Provinces it lapses to provincial services, in the same way as a special unspent grant would lapse. It follows then that, so far as education is concerned, a provincial surplus of income above expenditure cannot exist at the end of the year. But a local fund surplus may and often does exist. Here again it is unsafe to regard that surplus as available for expenditure. In Bombay, for instance, the greater part of the local fund rates are collected at the close of the financial year with the land revenue, and therefore when the accounts are made up on the 31st of March a large surplus is shown. But this working balance will be required to keep the schools going until the following February. Also it is well known that most Indian Provinces are subject to the recurrence of famine, when the collections of land revenue and consequently of local rates are suspended or remitted. In view of such contingencies a reserve fund must be kept. The danger varies in intensity in different Provinces; and it is safe to assume that the local Department, which has no possible interest in reducing its expenditure on primary schools below its income, is the best judge of the amount which it has to spend. For these reasons we regard the actual expenditure of each year as practically equivalent to the income available for expenditure. Accordingly we give below two Tables, in the first of which will be found a comparison between the expenditure in 1870-71 and that in 1881-82. The next Table exhibits in detail the total expenditure on departmental and aided primary schools for the year which is under review in this Report.

TABLE 7.—Comparative Statement of the Total Expenditure

PEOTXfCBS.	Object of Expenditure.	iMPEITr AT. OB PHOVIKCIBH EXPENDITUKB.*		iMPEITr AT. OB PHOVIKCIBH EXPENDITUKB.*	
		Years.		Years.	
		1870-71.	1881-82.	1870-71.	1881-82.
I	a	3	4	5	6
		R	a		X
Habeas . . . ^	Boys' and Girls' Schools Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses Scholarships c..... Buildings 0 Miscellaneous c.....	82,796 74,799	j,39,118 29,027	...	4,78,297 23,8X9
	TOTAL	1,57,595	1,68,145	...	5,02,1x6
Bomai . . . <	Boys' and Girls' Schools Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses Scholarships Buildings Miscellaneous	3,33,247 37,753 51,267 11,284	2,74,146 49,555 10,115 11,922	5,22,2 99 24,539 1,22,772 13,101	6,21,381 20,085 1,691 1,19,788 24,187
	TOTAL	3,33,551	3,45,738	6,82,711	7,87,X32
Bshoal . . . ^	Boys' and Girls' Schools . . Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses Scholarships c Buildings 0 Miscellaneous c.....	1,75,774 1,38,382	5,26,553 70,216	...	14,835 350
	TOTAL	3,14,156	5,96,769	...	15,185
NOETS-WBSrEEN PBO- J TINfiBS AND Om>H.j	Boys* and Girls* Schools Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses Scholarships 0 Buildings Miscellaneous	1,71,767 50,269 1,515	1,83,829 32,248	1,61,906 9,975 17,214 4,927	5*39,299 6,392 27,059 13,720
	TOTAL	2,23,551	2,16,077	1,94,022	5,86,470
ptnwAB . .	Boys* and Girls* Schools . . Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses Scholarships c Buildings c Miscellaneous c.....	71,470 29,073	77,271 19,751	1,47,229 17,4U	3,22,750 22,098
	TOTAL	1,00,543	97,022	1,64,640	3,44,848 ^
CaHTBAL PbOY*NOB3 . .	Boys* and Girls* Schools Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses Scholarships Buildings Miscellaneous	46,916 10,484 4,000 m	76,130 24,358 2,014 42,148	1,24,955 *1,153 1,000	1,44,698 14 5,335 4,633
	TOTAL	61,400	1,44,650	i,37.io8	1,54,680
ASSAM: . . r'	Boys* and Girls* Schools Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses Scholarships Buildings Miscellaneous	11,930 1,9,595	485 1,161	...	51,209 3,363 *,43i 544
	TOTAL	...	24,171	...	56,547
Coo** . . j	Boys* and Girls* Schools Training Schools for Rasters and Mistresses Scholarships Building's Miscellaneous	5,530 16	2,206 1,890	...	6,150 433
	TOTAL	5,546	4,096	...	6,583
HAXDABABAO) ASSIGN- J K> DIBTaiOTB.	Boys* and Girls* Schools Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses Scholarships Buildings Miscellaneous	77,756 2,089 15*377	98,673 8,571 8,967 10,789	35,682 3,416 18,619 3,162	55,525 28,784 3,532
	TOTAL	95,222	1,25,000	60,879	87,841
	TOTAL FOR IKDIAf	12,91,564	17,21,668	12,39,360	25,41,402

* Excluding the expenditure on schools
 ^ Excluding British Burma and all Native States
 † Excluding the expenditure on primary education in Ajmir, which amounted to Rs. 11,887.

on primary Education in the years 1870-71 and 1881-82.

Expenditure from P.B.S.B.*		Expenditure from P.B.S.B.*		Expenditure from P.B.S.B.*		Expenditure from P.B.S.B.*	
1870-71.	1881-82.	1870-71.	1881-82.	1870-71.	1881-82.	1870-71.	1881-82.
91,202	5,14,178	68,371	3,76,996	2,42,364	15,08,589		
8,210	1,877	21,369	22,782	1,04,378	77,505		
99,412	5,16,055	89,740	3,99,778	3,46,747	15,86,094		
29,557	94,470	87,280	3,32,398	8,72,383.	14,2,395		
219	1,877	8,526	11,788	71,037.	81,439		
4*4		74,303	8,267	248,756	9,958		
3*5		16,030	82,811	25,700	2,12,714		
31,505	1,94,481	1,70,109	4,51,294	12,17,876	17,78,645		
58,652	11,66,478	96,570	4*7 7*691	3*30,9862	21,85,557		
5,748	2,927	20,758	16,808	1,64,888	90,301		
64,400	11,69,405	1,17,328	4,94,499	4,95,884	22,75,858		
19,634	54,797	2,21,772	87,953	5,75,079	8,65,878		
21	724	12,552	3,994	72,817	43,358		
19,655	55,521	2,34,324	91,947	6,71,552	9,50,015		
W63	62,230	67,920	73,444	2,99,782	5,35,695		
10	74	10,789	10,160	157,283	52,083		
13,173	62,304	78,709	83,604	3,57,065	5,87,778		
7,395	21,902	69,273	36,099	248,539	2,78,829		
		849	116	22,486	24,488		
			2,676	5,000	7,349		
7,395	21,902	70,122	38,891	2,76,025	3,60,123		
	18,016	Figures in- cluded in those for Bengal.	18,291	Figures in- cluded in those for Bengal,	99,446		
	96		1,232		15,286		
			785		2,701		
			584		^289		
	18,112		20,892		1,19,7220		
127	1,064		220	5,657	9,640		
				16	1,890		
					433		
127	1,064		220	8673	n,9*3		
	25,927	497	974	1,13,935	1,81,099		
				5,505	8,571		
				18,619	835-751		
				18,539	14,321		
	25,927	497	974	ic<56,598	2,39,742		
2,35,667	20,64,771	7,60,823	15,82,099	35,27,920	9,40,940		

or Europeans and Eurasians, that administer their own system of education. The expenditure in Ajmir for 1870-71 is also omitted from this Table.

TABLE 8—Detailed Statement showing the Total Expenditure

NAM* or pBOvrrrck.	Class of Schools.	Local Cess and Municipal Funds.			MUNICIPAL		AIDED SCHOOLS.*				
		ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft
i	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
HISUB . . .	Boys	53,278	2,00,896	51,896	2,766	3,08,836	67,174	2,93,697	3,06,393	1,90,215	8,56,478
	Girls	12,137	<5,173	595	465	>9,37*	35,556	2,350	9,403	93,410	*4,07*9
	TOTAL	65,415	2,06,069	52,491	3,231	3,28,206	1,02,730	*95,047	3,15,796	*83,625	9,97,997
BOKBAX . . .	Boys	3,92,928	7,331,377	1,44,920	7,155	<77,380	9,266	3,136	5,503	30,401	38,306
	Girls	34,060	51,097	948	1,315	87,4*0	9,484	522	3,127	34,040	47,773
	TOTAL	3,16,988	7,83,474	1,45,868	8,470	12,64,800	*8,750	3,658	8,630	54,44*	85,479
Bsoal . . .	Boys	5,139	350	581	104	66,174	4,80,013	11,062	10,64,343	3,42,891	*8,98,309
	Girls	51,617	1,321	11,970	1,02,626	...	*6,67,434
	TOTAL	65,439	350	581	104	66,174	5,31,630	12,283	*0,76,3*3	4,45,517	*0,65,743
N<>bil>W ehtxib<< Pxyin cbs jum><< Otoh. C	Boys	1,41,577	5,31,634	37,568	7,013	7,17,841	43,132	6,603	16,374	41,290	*07,*99
	Girls	11,454	4,212	490	...	*6,156	19,914	1,216	1,381	34,049	57,460
	TOTAL	1,53,031	5,35,846	37,568	7,501	7,33,997	63,046	7,819	*7,655	76,239	**64,759
PmrrxB .	Boys	36,319	3,20,282	40,*09	6,187	4,08,997	28,318	2,581	13,671	32,689	77**59
	Girls	3,18a	15,337	2	5a1	18,04a	30,203	6,648	2,432	44,207	83,480
	TOTAL	38,50*	3,35,619	46,211	6,708	4*7*39	58,5*1	9,**9	*6,093	76,896	*60,739
Ckjtteal Pbov-J 33TC18.)	Boys	71,35*	1,91,157	38,023	5,719	*4*55	22,353	3,032	3,707	32,843	50,835
	Girls	5,13*	*3,383	170	...	*81585	*747	240	...	4,760	5,747
	TOTAL	56,488	*4* 440	18,023	5,880	2,42,840	*4,000	2,27a	3,707	*7,603	57,58*
ASSAM . . .	Boys	9m	3,363	96	67	13,018	14,036	51,486	17,207	17,256	99,985
	Girls	643	1,698	24	3,073	5,438
	TOTAL	9,49*	3,3^3	96	67	13,018	14,679	53,*84	*7,*3*	20,3*9	*05,4*3
Coose .	Boys	3,784	6,583	1,043	...	11,410	192	...	21	110	3*3
	Girls	120	110	*30	
	TOTAL	3,784	6,583	1,043	...	11,4x0	3**	...	ax	3*0	553
Havdabvad . . .	Boys	1,20,167	86,092	13,411	...	2,19,670	3,088	240	12,516	704	*6,548
	Girls	1,433	1,359	*79*	312	150	270	73*	
	TOTAL	1,81,600	87,45*	13^11	...	2,22,462	3,400	390	12,5x6	974	17,280
TofAX, 702 J IEDIA.S ^	Boys	7,94,040	20,10,784	3,13,747	39,010	3M7>58x	6,67,472	3,69,837	14,39,634	6,68,399	3*45,34*
	Girls	66,398	91,461	1,545	2,961	1,62,365	*49,596	14,045	28,327	3,17^445	5,09,4*3
	TOTAL	8,60^38	21,03,245	3,15^a9*	3*97*	33,09,946	8,17,068	3,83,88a	*4,67,96*	9,85,844	36^54,755

* Excluding the expenditure on schools for Europeans
 T Including the expenditure on all professional and
 I lacluding the expenditure of unaided schools under
 S Excluding British Burma and all Natiye States that
 J 8 the expenditure on primary education in
 < Including training schools and classes for mstrfrs

on Departmental and Aided Primary Schools*^ in 1881-82.

TOTAL.														REMARKS.							
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	
1,704,454	4,93,593	3,28,288	1,92,981	65,274	1,704,454	4106	12768	7772	382*	46774											
47,693	8,223	5,995	92,875	1,66,085																	
1,656,761	5,04,116	3,48,286	2,86,856	13,74,403																	
3,02,194	7,28,813	1,20,423	27,256	12,15,686																	
43,544	8,462	4,075	35,355	1,34,793																	
3,45,738	7,87,413	1,54,498	62,911	*3,20,279																	
5,45,152	11,418	10,64,924	3,42,995	19,64,483																	
51,647	1,221	11,970	1,02,616	1,67,424																	
5,96,769	11,633	10,76,894	4,45,612	*3,87,717																	
1,84,709	5,28,287	33,842	48,303	8,25,408																	
3,73,68	5,428	1,381	25,429	73,646																	
3,16,077	8,42,718	65,723	*3,741	*1,98,756																	
64,637	3,33,863	59,884	38,875	4,86,756																	
33,385	31,985	2,424	44,728	*1,01,522																	
97,0*	8,41,777	61,264	83,604	5,87,77*																	
93,609	1,31,189	21,730	28,953	*7,79,946																	
6,879	13,523		4,930	*1,33,11*																	
1,00,488	1,44,712	*1,730	32,68*	3,00,422																	
23,238	64,849	17,303	17,333	*1,20,003																	
643	1,598	34	3,073	5,428																	
*4,171	66,847	17,317	20,286	1,18,441																	
3,076	6,283	1,064	110	1,773																	
120			110	730																	
4,096	6,283	1,064	328	11,963																	
1,73,255	86,322	25,927	784	2,26,218																	
*745	1,642	270	3,514																		
1,25,000	87,841	*8,917	974	*2,28,74*																	
146,132	23,80,831	17,83,381	6,97,469	62,92,423																	
2,18,904	1,05,506	29,873	3,20,466	6,71,778																	
18,77,546	*4,46,77	17,83,381	10,17,815	69,64,701																	

and Eurasians, technical institutions and on schools for Europeans and Eurasians, inspection, administer their own system of education. Ajmir which amounted to Rs. n,SS7. of primary schools.

* The total expenditure incurred by the Native States (Rs. 5,76,833) is her included in the total expenditure on education. Excludes that sum the percentage for Bombay IB 47*30.

* The expenditure on buildings and miscellaneous objects (Rs. 40,779) entered in Table 7 cannot be shown separately for 'big' and 'small' schools. It has therefore been excluded from columns 13-17, but included in column 18-22.

* The expenditure on scholarships and buildings (Rs. 56,509) entered in Table 7 cannot be shown separately for 'big' and 'small' schools. It has therefore been excluded from columns 13-17, but included in column 18-22.

220. Ependiture on primary Education in 1870-71 and in 1881-82,

—The first subject which demands notice in Table 7 is the contrast between the funds available for extending primary education in 1870-71 and in 1881-82. In the first year, Bombay, the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab, the Central Provinces, and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts were the only Provinces of India in which local and municipal funds bore any part of the burden of educating the masses. We have seen the importance which the Secretary of State and the Government of India attached to the levy of local rates for primary education. The advantages of associating the development of this branch of public instruction with local taxation were both financial and administrative. One argument was supplied by the inability of the Imperial exchequer to find sufficient funds for so great and increasing a task; the other was suggested by the political advantage of entrusting to local boards, administering local resources, a branch of administration in which local interest and supervision could alone secure full efficiency and economy. Accordingly we find that in 1881-82 there was no Province of India, except Bengal, which had not cordially accepted the policy recommended by superior authority* The total expenditure from provincial, rural, and municipal funds in 1881-82 on primary education was Us. 42,63,070, of which 60 per cent, was raised locally by urban or rural boards, while 40 per cent, fell upon provincial revenues. In 1870-71 49 per cent, of the expenditure had been paid by local rates, while 51 per cent, was contributed by provincial revenues. But the difference between 59 per cent, and 49 per cent, is not the only measure of the success that has attended the imposition of local rates. In 1881-82 the provincial expenditure had increased over that of 1870-71 by 33 per cent., while the local and municipal grants to primary education had increased by 105 per cent. The local fund revenue has, therefore, been vastly more elastic than the provincial grant, and this elasticity is likely to continue in future years. This comparison fails, however, to exhibit the results in the most striking light. In Bengal there are no local educational rates, and the local rates levied in Assam were imposed after the separation of the Province from Bengal and long after 1871. Excluding therefore Bengal and Assam from the present review, it appears that in the remaining seven Provinces 56 per cent, of the public expenditure on primary education in 1870-71 was provided by local rates, and 44 per cent, by imperial, or as they are now termed provincial revenues. In 1881-82 the local rates contributed 69 per cent, and the provincial funds 31 per cent, of the public expenditure. In the same period the provincial grant had increased by only 12 per cent., and the local rates by 99 per cent. Thus it is evident that the extension of primary education since 1870-71 in seven of the Provinces has almost entirely depended on local resources, and it must be remarked that if its history were traced throughout each year between 1871 and 1882, it would be found that, whereas the provincial grant has varied with financial disturbances caused by war and famine, the local fund income has remained comparatively secure. In considering Table 7 it must further be borne in mind that the expenditure on school buildings is not shown for Madras, Bengal, or the Punjab, as these charges appear in the lump and are not separated according to the class of education. But in Bengal such expenditure cannot be great, as the indigenous schoolmasters make their own arrangements for accommodation. It must also be remembered that under the heading "expenditure from other sources" are included estimates furnished by indigenous schoolmasters. We have no means of verifying these estimates which in some Provinces are regarded as under, and in others as over, the mark; and they must therefore be accepted with reservation, especially in Bengal, where inspection is still inadequate to the great task which the Department has undertaken. In Bombay, under this heading are included large sums paid by the Native States for

schools which, though only inspected by the Department, are in their character essentially departmental institutions. In Chapter XII we shall be careful to distinguish these sums from contributions made by the people,

221. The Claims of primary Education upon public Funds generally—The controversy regarding the relative claims of higher and primary education has not been completely set at rest by the change of public sentiment in regard to the “downward filtration theory.”⁵⁵ We have already referred to our Recommendations on this subject, but it is necessary, before reviewing the statistics of public expenditure upon Government and aided primary schools, to refer more particularly to the debate which took place in the Commission on February 14, 1883. It was proposed that the Commission should assert the principle “that the elementary education of the masses be declared to be that part of the State system of education to which public funds be mainly devoted.” To this proposal objection was taken by some on the grounds that, if local funds were mainly expended upon primary education, the higher grades of education had a stronger claim upon provincial funds which were equally public funds; that it took no notice of private funds which might be largely devoted to the education of the masses and thus render a large public expenditure unnecessary; and that the authorities had never intended to limit expenditure to that class of instruction now defined as primary. The Commission thereon decided, not without protest from the minority, to substitute for consideration the following proposition: “That while every branch of education can rightly claim the fostering care of the State, it is desirable, in the present circumstances of the country, to declare the elementary education of the masses, its provision, extension, and improvement, to be that part of the educational system to which the efforts of the State should now be directed in a still larger measure than heretofore.” This proposal was objected to on the ground that it was a vague and qualified declaration of policy; that the Government of India Resolution No. 63, dated February 11, 1871, had laid down the policy which Government meant to pursue; and that except in Bengal the local rates were exclusively or almost exclusively reserved for primary education. An amendment to the proposition was then moved to the following effect: “That it be declared that, while all forms of education are necessary for the good of the community and deserving of encouragement, the elementary education of the masses is that portion of the system of education that has the strongest claim on the State; and that as secondary and collegiate education become more self-supporting, a constantly increasing proportion of public funds be devoted to elementary education.” The main object of this amendment was to remove the impression that the duty of the State towards primary education might one day change, which seemed to be suggested by the phrase “under present circumstances.”⁵ The amendment was lost, but the supporters of the original motion agreed to accept the Recommendation in this form—that *whilst every branch of education can rightly claim the fostering care of the State, it is desirable in the present circumstances of the country to declare the elementary education of the masses, its provision, extension, and improvement, to be that part of the educational system to which the strenuous efforts of the State should now be directed in a still larger measure than heretofore.* It was felt that this Recommendation did not prevent a more explicit declaration of the ways and means by which “the strenuous efforts of Government in the cause of primary education must be supported. Accordingly a further Recommendation was proposed and adopted, to the effect that *primary education be declared to be that part of the whole system of public instruction which possesses an almost exclusive claim on local funds set apart for education and a large claim on provincial revenues.* Objection was taken

to this Recommendation on the ground that local rates might be fairly charged with the cost of higher education, and it was proposed to declare that "primary education possesses the first claim on local funds set apart for education, where such exist, and a large claim on provincial revenues." This amendment was resisted on the ground, that the imposition of local rates was universal except in Bengal, where, notwithstanding the decision of the Government of India in 1868 which was supported by the Secretary of State, no educational rate had yet been imposed; and that the clause "where such exist" would imply that the Commission were indifferent to the further development of a policy which had been so instrumental in providing for the education of the masses throughout India with the exception of one Province. It was urged that the two principles contained in the Recommendation were sound, namely, that the local educational rate should be almost exclusively devoted to the education of the masses who were the chief contributors to it; and secondly, that the levy of a local rate did not diminish, but rather increased, the obligation of the State to help those who were least able to help themselves and yet came forward to supply local resources for their education. The Recommendation given above was then carried by a large majority. Accepting therefore these two Recommendations as the deliberate verdict of the Commission upon the question of the claims which primary education possesses upon public funds (whether they be those raised by municipal and rural boards in the form of local rates, or whether they be the provincial revenues assigned to the Local Government from imperial taxation), we may now proceed to enquire how far the practice corresponds with the theory thus enunciated. The following figures are taken from Table 8, which has been given above. They show how the claims of primary education, first, upon public educational funds, and, secondly, upon provincial funds assigned for education, were recognised by the various Local Governments and Administrations in the year ending March 31, 1882. In the last column they show the share of public as well as private educational funds which is believed to have been spent on primary education. The information is as accurate as we can obtain, but the expenditure on buildings and on scholarships is not uniformly included in every Province. In Chapter XII we shall give a somewhat different analysis of public expenditure, and the distinction between the results shown here and there must not be overlooked.

Statement showing the percentage of expenditure on primary schools.

PROVINCE.	Percentage of public educational funds devoted to Departmental and Aided Primary schools.	Percentage of Provincial Educational funds devoted to Departmental and Aided Primary schools.	Percentage of total expenditure devoted to departmental and Aided Primary schools.	Percentage of total educational expenditure devoted to Primary schools of all classes (Departmental, Aided, and Inspected).
Madras .	41*06	17-12	38-22	45' 74
Bombay .	57*H	30*36	39-34	51%
Bengal .	22*73	22 5	33*99	36-29
North- Western Provinces and Oudh	5074	23-28	457°	46-21
Punjab .	35 89	18' 39	36-07	36-07
Central Provinces	5660	39 98	52 98	53 4
Assam	39' 36	17-09	38 07	38-48
Coorg	52*62	30 5	52'61	52-61
Haidarabad Assigned Districts	65*61	53*07	67*93	67' 93
All India	41*82	24*33	38*23	43*42

These figures show that in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, in Bombay, the North-Western Provinces, the Central Provinces and Coorg, more than half of the public expenditure on education was devoted to the instruction of the masses. In Madras, Assam, and the Punjab, more than one-third was so spent; whilst in Bengal, where owing to the absence of local rates the public support of primary education falls exclusively upon provincial revenues, less than one-fourth of the total public expenditure was devoted to primary education. For the whole of India, the percentage of public educational funds devoted to the instruction of the masses was 41 per cent., and the following Provinces were below that average, namely, Assam, which spent 39*36, the Punjab, which spent 35*89, and Bengal, which spent only 22*83 of – public educational fund on primary instruction. The proportion given for Bengal excludes, however, the cost of primary classes in secondary schools.

222. The claims of primary Education on Provincial Revenues —

The advocates of the claims of the masses have never been content with showing that a large proportion of public funds is spent on primary schools. They argue that local rates being contributed by the great mass of Indian cultivators are local contributions, which in equity demand an equivalent from the State; that, in the words of the Government of India, the provision of local rates does not lessen the obligation of the State to help those who help themselves, and therefore that it is important to see that a reasonable proportion of the provincial grant for education is assigned for primary schools. They call special attention to the Despatch of the Secretary of State, dated 26th of May 1870, which was the outcome of long discussion with the Bengal Government. That Despatch certainly enjoined the greatest caution in dealing with higher education, and it referred to the poverty of many of the students in the Bengal colleges and high schools; but it was prefaced by the following general remarks: “ In the brief remarks which I shall offer on your Despatch, “ I would be understood as approving generally of the main principle which “ runs through it, namely, that the Government expenditure should, as far “ as possible, be reduced with reference to the education of those who are well “ able to pay for themselves and should be mainly directed to the provision of “ an elementary education for the masses of the people.⁵⁵ What constitutes a reasonable grant has never been determined, but it is obvious that in a Province like Bengal, where there is no local fund for education to depend on, more must be done by provincial revenues than elsewhere. The Table shows that, while in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts more than half the provincial (assignment for education is given to primary education, and in the Central Provinces more than a third, Bombay and Coorg give 30 per cent., the North-Western Provinces 23 per cent., Bengal 22 per cent., and the rest of the Provinces between 18 and 14 per cent. We are, however, unable to pass over our reference to the Haidarabad Assigned Districts without further explanation. From the forwarding letter which covers the Report on education in these Districts we extract the following remarks: “ The cess was originally an education cess, but is now “ part of a local cess connected with village police. Education, however, did “ not lose by the change, and it receives a larger share now than formerly. On “ every rupee of revenue paid by each field, one anna three pies or five pice are “ levied. Of this revenue one-fifth forms the school cess. The cess income for “ education in 1881-82 amounted to Rs. 1,01,081 and each District was credited “ with its own share. The administration of the fund is, however, peculiar “ and demands notice. A hard-and-fast rule is laid down, that primary education in Government schools is not to receive more than Rs. 1,30,000 a year. “ It is also assumed that Rs. 53,660 of the cess income are available for this “ purpose, to which the Local Government adds from general revenues the

cc balance to make up Rs. 1,3^000. The rest of tliG cess income is sGt aside “ for school buildings. If the cess income increases, so as to be able to contribute more than Rs. 53,660, then the provincial assignment proportionately “ decreases.” We have no information which would show us whether the whole of the cess is annually spent on school buildings. But in Chapter *TV* of his Report the Director of Public Instruction suggests that the balance of the cess money, Rs. 47,000, now devoted to buildings, &c., should be given for the extension of primary education, and the provincial grant be raised under the terms of the Government of India Resolution No. 60, dated 1 ith February 1871. It seems probable that the very large share of provincial educational funds, 53 per cent., which is given to primary education in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, is partially accounted for by the financial arrangement described above, —an arrangement which treats a local fund income of Rs. 1,01,081 as if it were an income of Rs. 53,660. Our Recommendations will, however, if they are adopted by the Local Administration, introduce a change in this respect. The whole local fund income will in the first place be credited to the school fund and will be supplemented by a provincial grant. The proportion of the whole expenditure borne by local rates will then be increased, and that charged to the provincial grant be *pro tcmt*o diminished.

223. The Cost of Education in primary Schools—The following Table gives the average annual cost of educating each pupil in the primary schools of each Province. It includes* except for Bengal and Assam, the expenditure upon primary classes in secondary schools; and thus it appears that in the Punjab provincial funds bear some part of the cost of primary education, although we have explained elsewhere that in that Province primary vernacular schools are not assisted or maintained out of provincial revenues. The inclusion of these primary classes, and of schools in which English is taught to pupils under primary instruction, will explain the comparatively large cost of educating a pupil in the aided schools of the Punjab and the North-Western Provinces. It will be observed that the cost of educating a pupil in the primary cessschools of Bombay is very little more in the case of boys’ schools, and much less in the case of girls* schools than the cost in aided institutions. This is explained by the large average attendance in a departmental schoof in Bombay, which economises the attention of the masters and other incidental expenses. With these few remarks we subjoin the following Table.

TABLE No. 10 .—Statement showing the average* annual cost of educating each pupil in primary schools in the official year 1881-82.

PROVINCE AND CLASS OF SCHOOLS.	r*pABnrstix SCHOOLS.				AIDED SCBOOZ*.				CMAJDID SCHOOLS	
	Total cost.	Cost to Provincial Funds.	Cost to Local Rates or Cesses.	Cost to Municipal Funds.	Total cost.	Cost to Provincial Funds.	Cost to Local Rates or Cesses.	Cost to Municipal Funds.	Total cost.	Cost to Municipal Prods.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Primary schools for Madras . . . (Boys)	6 0 10	0 13 9	3 7 10	0 8 2	4 5 9	0 5 3	1 5 1	0 3 3	2 0 8	
(Girls)	5 2 0	2 11 3	0 12 11	1 4 1	11 5 0	2 13 5	0 0 2	0 3 2	8 5 1	
TOTAL	6 1 11	0 15 3	3 6 3	0 9 1	4 11 11	0 7 5	1 3 11	0 3 3	2 6 6	...
Bombay . . . (Boys)	4 5 10	1 1 1 3	2 6 10	0 2 9	4 1 6	1 0 1	0 4 4	0 0 2	4 5 6	...
(Girls)	6 0 7 6	1 11 8	4 1 11	0 1 9	10 4 11	2 4 9	0 0 10	0 1 2	5 8 9	...
TOTAL	4 7 0	1 11 8	2 8 1	0 2 9	6 0 3	1 6 7	0 3 3	0 0 5	4 6 7	...
Bengal . . . (Boys)	4 0 3	3 14 3	2 10 0	0 10 7	0 0 2	0 0 1	2 7 2	0 0 8
(Girls)					11 7 4	3 6 1 1		0 1 4	7 4 4	0 7 1 1
TOTAL	4 0 3	3 14 3	2 12 9	0 16 6	0 0 2	0 0 1	2 9 1 0	0 0 8
Kobth - Wbstust r Boys	3 10 6	0 9 6	2 10 9	0 2 3	10 1 2	2 4 5 2	0 0 8	0 9 1	1 9 6 4	1 3 2 9
PROVINCBS AND J	4 7 5	3 2 8	0 14 1	0 4 7	10 1 2	8 3 1 3 0		0 3 8	6 4 0	1 1 5
OU DH . . (Girls)										
TOTAL	3 10 6	0 9 6	2 10 9	0 2 3	10 1 2	2 4 5 2	0 0 8	0 9 1	1 9 6 4	1 3 2 9
PXJJTJAB . . (Boys)	4 1 2 8	0 6 6	2 1 5 8	0 1 2 0	7 6 9	2 1 3 6	1 1 5 7	0 4 7		...
(Girls)	4 1 5	0 9 1	2 1 2 0	1 1 3 2	1 2 1 2 6	3 4 3	0 1 1	2 1 1		...
TOTAL	4 1 7	0 6 8	2 1 5 8	0 1 2 9	9 6 4	3 0 0	0 1 1			...
CEHTRAL PBOV- C@^8	3 14 1	0 1 5 9	2 1 9	0 5 4	2 1 2 2	1 3 4	...	0 1 9	0 1 4 9	—
ncrcus . . (Girls)	5 2 5		4 9 4	0 8 1	1 3 0 9	3 6 0		0 7 5		
TOTAL	3 1 5 0	0 1 5 0	2 3 8	0 5 5	1 3 0 8	1 4 3	...	0 1 1 1	0 1 4 9	
Assam . . . (Boys)	2 0 8	2 0 8	*»		2 1 5 0	0 5 7	1 9 2	*»«	0 8 2	...
(Girls)	*»«	*»«			5 3 1 1	0 9 1 1	1 1 0 2		2 3 5	
TOTAL	2 0 8	2 0 8	3 0 2	0 5 8	1 9 2		0 9 1	
Coosa . . . (Boys)	3 4 9	0 1 1 0	2 3 9		5 »» 8	3	«**		-	
(Girls)	.. .				1 4 6 0	7 8 0		«□«		
TOTAL	3 4 9	0 1 1 0	2 3 9		7 9 2	4 4 5
Haidabad As- (Boys)	6 1 7	3 8 1 1	2 0 3	0 0 4	4 1 3	0 1 2 2	0 0 6	0 0 5
Bi&NBO DiS" <	10 9 2	5 6 10	3 4 3	1 1 4 1	7 2 10	3 0 1 1		1 7 6		
TBICTS . . (Girls)										
TOTAL	6 2 4	3 9 2	2 0 6	0 0 8	4 2 5	0 1 3 1	0 0 6	0 1 0
f Boys	4 5 7	0 1 4 9	2 9 7	0 4 3	3 1 1 1	0 1 0 6	0 5 0	0 0 1 0	2 1 3 1	0 0 2
Total job lkdial I Girls	5 1 0 7	1 1 2 1 0	3 1 1	0 1 0 4	1 1 3	3 1 8	0 1 3	0 3 5	7 3 6	0 1 7
(Total	4 6 5	0 1 5 4	2 9 X X	0 4 6	3 7 i	0 1 2 1	0 4 n	0 1 0	3 0 8	0 0 3

* Calculated on the average monthly number of the pupils enrolled*
 t Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, Native States that administer linear own system of cdaettVa.

124. Recommendations Recapitulated.—The Recommendations which have been discussed in detail in the course of this Chapter may now be presented in a complete form as follows:—

We recommend that—

(1) primary education be regarded as the instruction of the masses through the vernacular in such subjects as will best fit them for their position in life, and be not necessarily regarded as a portion of instruction leading up to the

University:

(2) the upper primary and lower primary examinations be not made compulsory in any Province :

(3) while every branch of education can justly claim the fostering care of the State, it is desirable, in the present circumstances of the country, to declare the elementary education of the masses, its provision, extension, and improvement, to be that part of the educational system to which the strenuous efforts of the State should now be directed in a still larger measure than heretofore :

(4) an attempt be made to secure the fullest possible provision for an extension of primary education by legislation suited to the circumstances of each Province:

(5) where indigenous schools exist, the principle of aiding and improving them be recognised as an important means of extending elementary education:

(6) examinations by inspecting officers be conducted as far as possible *in situ*, and all primary schools receiving aid be invariably inspected *in situ* :

(7) as a general rule, aid to primary schools be regulated to a large extent according to the results of examination; but an exception may be made in the case of schools established in backward Districts or under peculiar circumstances, which may be aided under special rules:

(8) school-houses and furniture be of the simplest and most economical kind:

(9) the standards of primary examination in each province be revised with a view to simplification, and to the larger introduction of practical subjects, such as native methods of arithmetic, accounts and mensuration, the elements of natural and physical science, and their application to agriculture, health, and the industrial arts; but no attempt be made to secure general uniformity throughout India:

(10) care be taken not to interfere with the freedom of managers of aided schools in the choice of text-books :

(11) promotion from class to class be not necessarily made to depend on the results of one fixed standard of examinations uniform throughout the Province:

(12) physical development be promoted by the encouragement of native games, gymnastics, school-drill and other exercises suited to the circumstances of each class of school:

(13) all inspecting officers and teachers be directed to see that the teaching and discipline of every school are such as to exert a right influence on the manners, the conduct, and the character of the children, and that for the guidance of the masters a special manual be prepared:

(14) the existing rules, as to religious teaching in Government schools, be applied to all primary schools wholly maintained by municipal or local fund boards:

OS) supply of Normal schools, whether Government or aided, be so localised as to provide for the local requirements of all primary schools, whether Government or aided, within the Division under each Inspector :

(16) the first charges on provincial funds assigned for primary education be the cost of its direction and inspection, and the provision of adequate Normal schools :

(17) pupils in municipal or local board-schools be not entirely exempted from payment of fees, merely on the ground that they are the children of rate-payers :

(18) in all board-schools a certain proportion of pupils be admissible as free students on the ground of poverty; and in the case of special schools, established for the benefit of poorer classes, a general or larger exemption from payment of fees be allowed under proper authority for special reasons :

(19) subject to the exemption of a certain proportion of free students on account of poverty, fees, whether in money or kind, be levied in all aided schools; but the proceeds be left entirely at the disposal of the school-managers:

(20) the principle laid down in Lord Hardinge's Resolution, dated 1st October 1844, be re-affirmed, *i.e.*, that in selecting persons to fill the lowest offices under Government, preference be always given to candidates who can read and write:

(21) the Local Governments, especially those of Bombay and the North-Western Provinces, be invited to consider the advisability of carrying out the suggestion contained in paragraph 96 of the Despatch of 1854, namely, of making some educational qualification necessary to the confirmation of hereditary village officers, such as patels and lamhardars :

(22) night schools be encouraged wherever practicable:

(23) as much elasticity as possible be permitted both, as regards the hours of the day and the seasons of the year during which the attendance of scholars is required, especially in agricultural villages and backward Districts :

(24) primary education be extended in backward Districts, especially in those inhabited mainly by aboriginal races, by the instrumentality of the Department pending the creation of school-boards, or by specially liberal grants-in-aid to those who are willing to set up and maintain schools :

(25) all primary schools wholly maintained at the cost of the school-boards, and all primary schools that are aided from the same fund and are not registered as special schools, be understood to be open to all castes and classes of the community :

(26) such a proportion between special and other primary schools be maintained in each school-district as to ensure a proportionate provision for the education of all classes:

(27) assistance be given to schools and orphanages in which are taught reading, writing, and counting, with or without

(28) primary education be declared to be that part of the public instruction which possesses an almost exclusive claim on the funds apart for education, and a large claim on provincial revenues:

(29) both Municipal and Local self-government Boards keep a separate school-fund:

(30) the municipal school-fund consist of—

(a) a fair proportion of municipal revenues, to be fixed in each case by the Local Government;

(b) the fees levied in schools wholly maintained at the cost of the municipal school-fund;

(c) any assignment that may be made to the municipal school-fund from the local fund;

(d) any assignment from provincial funds;

- (e) any other funds that may be entrusted to the municipalities for the promotion of education;
 - (/) any unexpended balance of the school-fund from previous years:
- (31) the local Board's school-fund consist of—
- (a) a distinct share of the general local fund, which share shall not be less than a minimum proportion to be prescribed for each Province;
 - (b) the fees levied in schools wholly maintained at the cost of the school-fund;
 - (c) any contribution that may be assigned by municipal boards;
 - (d) any assignment made from provincial funds;
 - (e) any other funds that may be entrusted to the local boards for the promotion of education;
 - (/) any unexpended balance of the school-fund from previous years:
- (32) the general control over primary school expenditure be vested in the school-boards, whether municipal or rural, which may now exist or may hereafter be created for self-government in each Province:
- (33) the first appointment of schoolmasters in municipal or board-schools be left to the town or District boards, with the proviso that the masters be certificated or approved by the Department, and their subsequent promotion or removal be regulated by the boards, subject to the approval of the Department:
- (34) the cost of maintaining or aiding primary schools in each school-district, and the construction and repair of board-school- houses, be charges against the municipal or local board-school-fund so created :
- (35) the vernacular, in which instruction shall be imparted in any primary school, maintained by any municipal or local board, be determined by the school committee of management, subject to revision by the municipal or local board: provided that if there be any dissenting minority in the community, who represent a number of pupils sufficient to form one or more separate classes or schools, it shall be incumbent on the Department to provide for the establishment of such classes or schools, and it shall be incumbent on such Municipal or Local Board to assign to such classes or schools a fair proportion of the whole assignable funds:
- (36) Municipal and Local Boards administering funds in aid of primary schools adopt the rules prescribed by the Department for aiding such schools, and introduce no change therein without the sanction of the Department.

CHAPTER 7.

SECONDARY EDUCATION.

225. Definition of the Term.—Secondary education, as the term is understood in India, may be generally (though not in all cases accurately) described as that which leads up from the primary to the collegiate course. But though its standard is everywhere higher than that of primary education, no definition can be framed which will exactly cover the subjects of secondary education in all Provinces. Its higher limit is, indeed, precisely defined by the matriculation standard of the Universities, since that standard has hitherto been regarded not only as the introduction to a course of collegiate study, but also as the final standard of secondary schools. But the starting-point of secondary education necessarily varies with the varying limits of primary instruction, as that is understood in different Provinces. Nor is the varying stage at which secondary education begins the only element of difference; other and equally marked differences are found to exist in the character of the instruction itself. In some Provinces the course in secondary schools is framed with exclusive reference to the University matriculation standard; in others, independent standards and courses of instruction are also found. In some Provinces, but not in all, instruction in English forms a necessary part of the course; in others, the study of an oriental classic is required, either as an alternative with English or as an independent subject; in others, again, elementary science is prescribed. In every Province, history, geography, and either geometry or algebra or both, form part of the course, though one or other of the first two subjects is sometimes taught in primary schools of the better class. But with all these differences, there is a clear line of distinction between secondary and primary education, in that the character of the former no longer has exclusive reference to the practical requirements of the student in after-life. In however small a degree, it begins to be definitely associated with what is understood as liberal education, and with the exercise of the higher faculties of thought. These are the lines by which the character of secondary education has been determined in all countries, and along which its development should manifestly proceed.

Another requirement of at least equal importance should always be kept in view. In the words of the Resolution appointing the Commission, ^M the great ^{fc} majority of those who prosecute their studies beyond the primary stage will “never go beyond the curriculum of the middle or at farthest of the high schools. It is therefore of the utmost importance that the education they receive should be as thorough and sound as possible.” In the course of this Chapter we shall enquire how far middle and high schools in India satisfy the condition of giving an education, sufficient and complete in itself, to pupils who proceed no further.

226. Instruction in high Schools.—The variety of standard above noted is, however, practically confined to the lower division of secondary schools,—that is, according to the existing classification, to middle schools. The course in the upper division—that is, in high schools—is governed throughout by the standard of the matriculation examination in which it ends. That standard, it is true, is not precisely the same in the different Universities of India, and to this extent the course of instruction in high schools will be found to differ. But as regards

the progress of education in high schools, these differences are not important enough to prevent an accurate comparison of Province with Province. There are, indeed, differences of another kind, which will be explained in detail hereafter; and of which it is now sufficient to say that while in one Province a high school contains only the two highest classes reading for the Entrance examination, and in another the four highest classes, in a third it includes pupils in every stage of progress from the alphabet to matriculation,—that is, it includes a high, a middle, and a primary department. But if we leave out of sight these differences of range, and confine our attention to the highest standards taught in high schools, it will appear that throughout India these standards present no wide variations,

227* Instruction in middle Schools—It is very different with the course of instruction in middle schools. In these schools not only does the curriculum vary from Province to Province, but even within the limits of the same Province double standards and courses of instruction are sometimes found. The former variation arises from the wider or narrower range of the course in different Provinces in primary and in high schools, by which the inferior and superior limits of middle school instruction are respectively determined. The latter variation is due to another cause. In many Provinces it has been felt that the requirements of pupils whose education is to terminate at the middle stage are different from those of pupils who will pass on in due course to the high school and the University Entrance examination. The standard has accordingly been modified in two different directions to suit the separate requirements of these two *classes* of pupils. In the first case, the middle standard is a development of that for primary schools, complete in itself and not looking to any higher standard. In the second case, it is ancillary to, and determined by, the standard of the high school to which it leads.

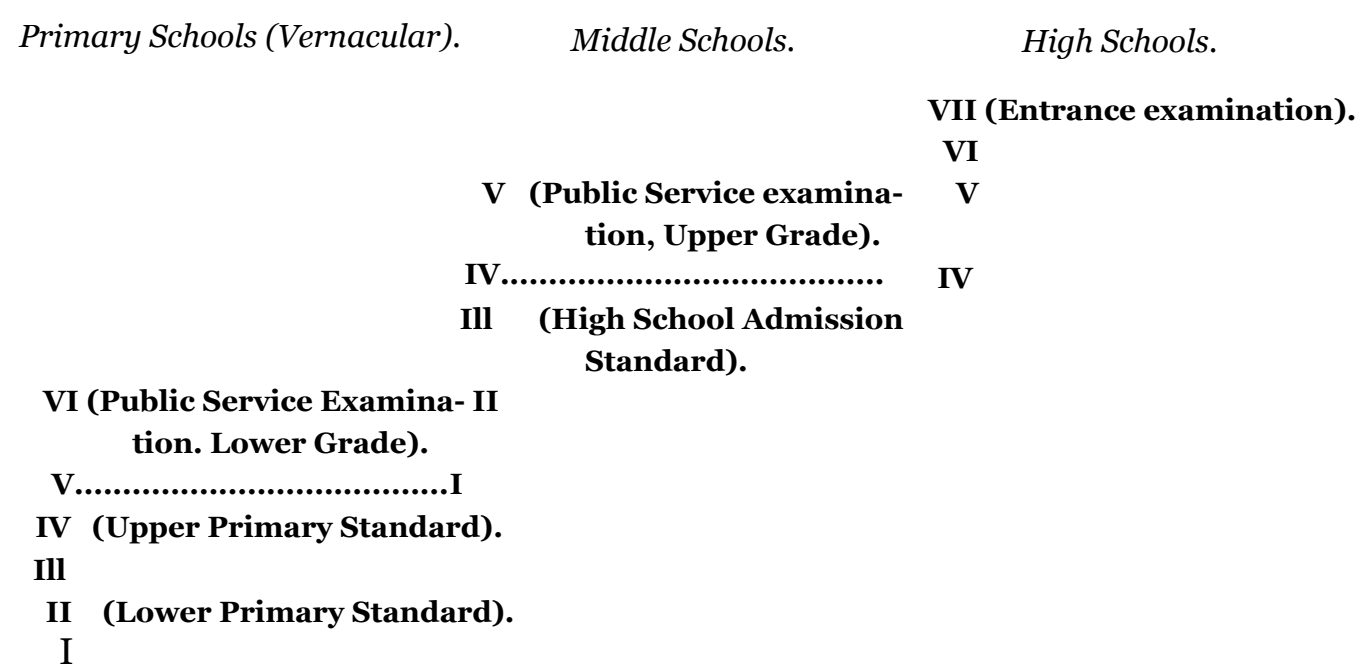
228. Connection of the different Classes of secondary Schools.—The following diagrams will show more clearly the general character of secondary schools, together with their relation to primary schools, in the chief administrative divisions of India. In each case the course of instruction is assumed to advance from class I, the lowest primary class, to class IX or X, that of the matriculation standard:—

Madras.

	<i>Vernacular Schools.</i>	<i>English Schools.</i>
High School		(VI (Entrance examination). I V
Middle School	{ VII . VI . V .	Upper IV (Middle School examination). Lower IV
Primary School .	{ IV . III . II . I	III II (Upper Primary examination). I (Lower „ „).

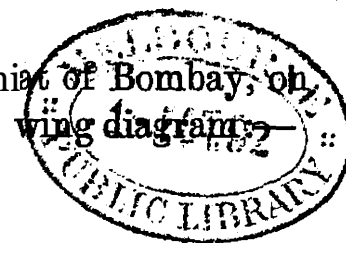
In vernacular schools, which are examined by fixed standards and are generally aided according to the results of examination, English may be optionally taught, as a language only, from class III upwards. In English schools, English is taught as a language from class I, and as the medium of instruction from the Lower IVth. In the corresponding classes of English and vernacular schools, the standard of instruction is practically the same.

Bombay.

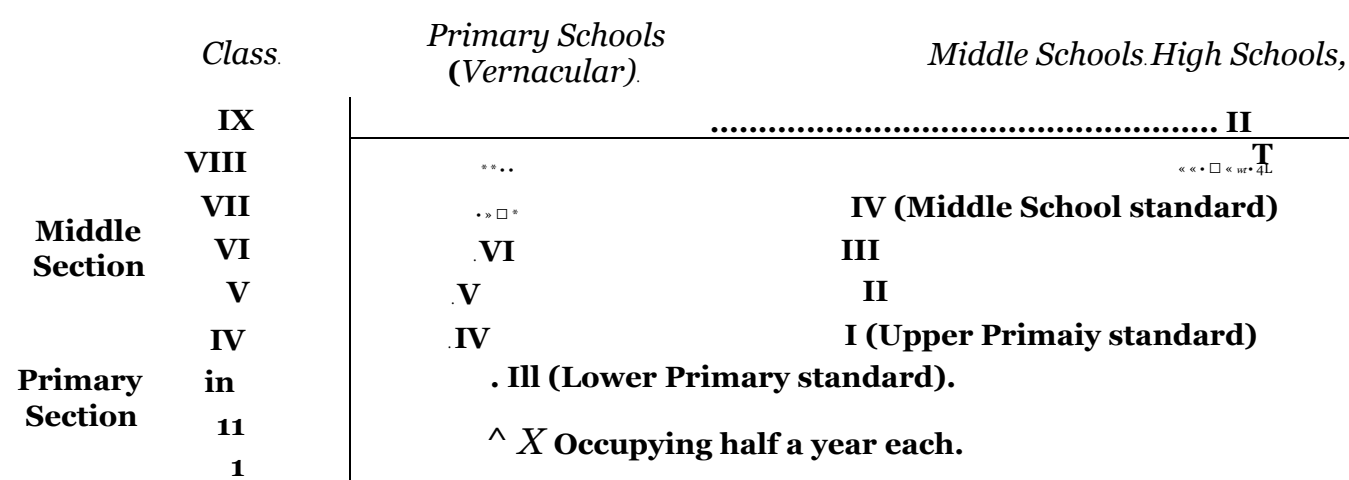


The ordinary primary course terminates at standard IV, after passing which pupils are admissible to middle schools, and the ordinary middle course at standard III, whence they may proceed to high schools. But a 5th and a 6th standard (still confined to instruction in the vernacular) are added to the course in primary, and a 4th and a 5th standard to that in middle schools, in order to meet the requirements of pupils who desire a fuller course of instruction, vernacular and English respectively, in the schools in which they are reading, without joining those of a higher class. The certificate of having passed these extra or supplementary standards is recognised as entitling the holder to enter the public service in different grades. In vernacular schools as they are now classified, English is not taught. In middle schools it is taught mainly as a language. In higher schools it is taught as a language and is also the medium of instruction.

The system in the Central Provinces closely resembles that of Bombay, on which it was founded. Its character will be seen from the following diagram.



Central Provinces,



No pupil can begin the study of English until he has passed the lower primary vernacular examination. Classes I to III (vernacular) form the lower primary branches of middle schools, the lowest class of which reads the upper primary course. Village primary schools have four and sometimes five classes, and town primary schools have five at least and sometimes six. According to the view expressed in the Report of our Provincial Committee for the Central Provinces, "The town vernacular schools might in fact be called "middle schools," were it not for the absence of a standard of examination corresponding to that prescribed for middle English schools. English is taught in all the classes of a middle school, and is usually the medium of instruction*"

Bombay.

<i>Primary Schools (Vernacular).</i>	<i>Middle Schools.</i>	<i>High Schools.</i>
	III (High School Admission Standard).	IV
	IV.....I	V
	V (Public Service examination, Upper Grade).	VI
		VII (Entrance examination).
VI (Public Service Examination, Lower Grade).		
V.....I		
IV (Upper Primary Standard).		
III		
II (Lower Primary Standard).		
I		

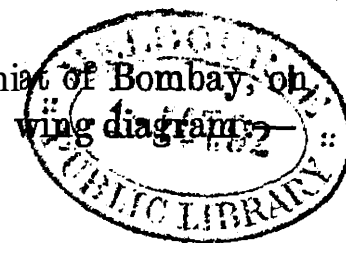
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The system in the Central Provinces closely resembles that of Bombay, on which it was founded. Its character will be seen from the following diagram.

Central Provinces,

Class.	<i>Primary Schools (Vernacular).</i>	<i>Middle Schools High Schools,</i>
IX		II
VIII I
VII	IV (Middle School standard)
Middle Section VI	VI	III
V	V	II
IV	IV	I (Upper Primary standard)
Primary in III	III (Lower Primary standard).	
Section II		
I	^ X Occupying half a year each.	

No pupil can begin the study of English until he has passed the lower primary vernacular examination. Classes I to III (vernacular) form the lower primary branches of middle schools, the lowest class of which reads the upper primary course. Village primary schools have four and sometimes five classes, and town primary schools have five at least and sometimes six. According to the view expressed in the Report of our Provincial Committee for the Central Provinces, "The town vernacular schools might in fact be called "middle schools," were it not for the absence of a standard of examination corresponding to that prescribed for middle English schools. English is taught in all the classes of a middle school, and is usually the medium of instruction*"



It is English is taught in the lower division of primary schools. In the higher classes of English schools, English is taught as a language, in addition to a course of study which is common to both classes of schools; and in vernacular schools mathematics and some other subjects are taught instead of English.

229. General Review of the Rise of Secondary Education.—The differences of system that are disclosed in the preceding paragraph are explained and justified by the different circumstances amid which secondary education of the modern type took its rise in the various Provinces of India. We proceed to give a brief historical review of these circumstances; dividing our review into three periods, (a) before 1854, (b) from 1854 to 1871, (c) from 1871 to 1882. Each period is marked by a distinguishing character of its own, which is common, more or less, to all the Provinces of India.

Before 1854.—During the first period, which may be roughly taken as beginning in the most advanced Province with the year 1820, the desires of the people set more or less strongly in the direction of English education, as being **that which would qualify them for the most lucrative and honourable employment**. This tendency was confirmed by the Resolution passed by the Government of Lord William Bentinck on 1835, which decided in favour of education in English and the vernaculars, in preference to the oriental classics. After that declaration of educational policy, the establishment of English schools and colleges became the main object of the efforts alike of Government, of the missionary bodies, of charitable individuals, and of the natives themselves associating together for that purpose. These efforts, so far as they came at all under the influence and control of Government, were subject to the supervision of honorary Boards, Committees, or Councils of Education, to whose zeal and success in discharging the difficult duties which they had undertaken, the Despatch of 1854 paid a well-earned and cordial tribute.

1854 to 1871.—In that Despatch the Court of Directors laid stress on the fact that the efforts of the Government had been too exclusively directed* towards the maintenance of colleges of a high standard, and towards providing a small number of natives of India, drawn for the most part, as the Court supposed, from what would be called in England the higher classes, with the means of acquiring a very high degree of education. It proceeded to point out that the attention of the Government should now be also directed! towards conveying to the great mass of the people useful and practical knowledge, suited to every station in life. This result would be attained if there existed, in every District of India, schools “ whose object § should be not to train highly a few youths, but « to provide more opportunities than now exist for the acquisition of such an improved education as will make those who possess it more useful members of “ society in every condition of life.” In using these words the Court of Directors had in view not merely the extension of primary and elementary schools, on the necessity of which marked to-day repeated stress is laid, but also the increase of schools of the class which are now called ^eondary- ** We intend § in this class “of institutions those which, like the gillah schools of Bengal, the district Government- * eminent Anglo-vernacular schools of Bombay, and such as have been established “by the Raja of Burdwan and other native gentlemen in different parts of “ India, use the English language as the chief medium of instruction; as well “as others of an inferior order, such as the tehslee schools in the ITarth- “ Western Provinces, and the Government vernacular schools in the Bombay “ Presidency, whose object is, however imperfectly it has been as yet carried “ out, to convey the highest class of instruction which can now be taught

* Paragraph 39.

t Paragraph 41.

J Paragraph. 42.

§ Paragraphs 43 and 44.

“through the medium of the vernacular languages. We include these ^ Anglo-
 <e vernacular and vernacular schools in the same class, because we are unwilling to
 “ maintain the broad line of separation which at present exists between schools in
 “ which the *media* for imparting instruction differ.” The attention of Govern-
 ment was thus directed, not only to the provision of instruction through the
 vernacular languages for the great mass of the people, but also to the increase
 of schools of secondary instruction; and although later Despatches* recalled
 attention to the urgent claims of primary education, yet it is not surprising
 that the outset of the period under notice is chiefly distinguished by the ex-
 tension of secondary schools—a tendency which made itself felt, more or less in
 different Provinces, up to its close.

1871 to 1882,—Towards the close of the period just described, successive
 reviews of the progress of education in India, undertaken by the Home author-
 ities, drew prominent attention to the need of extending elementary education
 among the masses of the people. Accordingly throughout the next period, from
 1871 to 1882, in which the control of education was transferred to Local
 Governments, the extension of secondary is much less marked than that of
 primary education, for the support and development of which local cesses had
 been raised in most Provinces. It should be here stated, and will be shown
 at length hereafter, that any comparison of progress between the first and
 the last year of this period becomes a matter of extreme difficulty owing
 to four causes :—(1) the more definite classification of primary and secondary
 schools in accordance with the standards prescribed by the Government of
 India, which resulted in the transfer of a great number of schools from one
 class to the other; (2) the separation of the middle departments of high
 schools, and of the primary departments of high and middle schools, and their
 exhibition as separate schools with corresponding separation of expenditure;
 (3) the exclusion of schools for Europeans and Eurasians from the Tables of
 attendance and expenditure for 1881-82; (4) special differences of classifica-
 tion affecting the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. But notwithstanding
 these sources of uncertainty, it may still be possible to trace and exhibit the
 main lines of the policy followed in each Province with regard to secondary
 education.

230. Secondary Education in Madras: Before 1854—The Board
 of Public Instruction, appointed in 1826, established, in addition to nearly 100
 elementary schools in the Districts, a training school in Madras which in later
 years became the basis of the high school of that town. The University Board,
 which ultimately replaced the Board of Public Instruction, opened two provin-
 cial schools of the same standard as the Madras High School, one at Cudda-
 lore in 1853, and one at Eajamahendri in 1854. The missionary bodies were
 working with much greater success towards the same end; and before 1849
 they had opened a large number of secondary schools in which English was
 taught, besides vernacular schools chiefly of an elementary character. Pachai-
 yappa's Central Institution was established at Madras in 1842, out of the accu-
 mulated funds arising from a native bequest for charitable purposes; and in
 ^1854 this school with its two branches was educating about a thousand pupils.

Madras: 1854 to 1871.—Towards the beginning of this period there
 were, under the management of Government, four high and seven *mirMift* schools,
 educating in all 1,631 pupils. Of the four high schools, three were afterwards
 raised to the rank of colleges. A scheme was set on foot for the establishment
 of 100 vernacular “ taluka ” schools, to serve as models; but owing to the
 indifference of the native community to vernacular education other than that

* April 1859; 22th December 1861; 23th April 1864.

provided in the indigenous schools, it was afterwards found expedient to add instruction in the English language to the regular vernacular course. Mean while, the grant-in-aid system was being introduced, for the encouragement of private effort in this class of education. In 1859 the Director of Public Instruction wrote as follows: " In all our educational operations, the eventual resort to the grant-in-aid system as the main course of action should be steadily kept in view Although it is probable that the time is still far distant when it will be possible to dispense with the limited number of Government schools which have been or are likely to be established, I would view these schools rather as pioneers, and as models to be followed and eventually to be superseded by others established on the grant-in-aid system." In 1870-71 there were 14 high and 67 middle schools under Government management, and 40 high and 523 middle schools under private bodies, together educating 43,700 pupils, including about 21,000 pupils in primary classes. Every District except one had a high school, either Government or aided. The grants to aided schools increased at a much more rapid rate than the expenditure on departmental institutions. The requirement of the Despatch of 1854, that stress should be laid on the vernacular languages* was met by the exclusion of English from the two lowest classes of primary schools, and by the adoption of the vernacular as the medium of substantive instruction in the three classes next above them.

1871 to 1882 .—In this period, the liberal policy of previous years was to some extent reversed. There was a serious loss in the number of secondary schools, and the reduction fell with exclusive weight on aided institutions. Government and aided high schools for boys increased from 52 to 69, the increase being equally divided between the two classes of schools. In aided middle schools for boys there was a loss of 200, while Government institutions of the same class increased by 66. The number of aided middle schools for girls also fell from 83 to 18, while the Department itself established one high and three middle schools of this class. The remarkable decrease shown in the number of middle schools is ascribed in a great measure, by our Provincial Committee for Madras, to the introduction of a more accurate system of classification. Still, there is good ground for believing that during the period under review there was an actual and considerable decrease in the number of aided middle schools. It is to be noticed that the reduction in the numbers returned was coincident with the elaboration of proposals for altering the grant-in-aid rules in the direction of greater stringency, a change which was carried out in spite of vigorous protests on the part of managers of aided schools. The salary-grant system, by which the grants to secondary schools were chiefly regulated, had been settled in 1865. Government announced its intention of transferring to primary education some portion of the funds until then devoted to secondary, large reductions were accordingly proposed in that year. In 1875, in the existing rates of aid. The expenditure from Provincial revenues upon aided schools in the period under review fell to Rs. 77,000, the last amount* however* excluding expenditure on schools for Europeans and Eurasians and on attached primary schools. This classification of schools, to which reference has been made as explaining the apparent decrease in the number of secondary schools and in the expenditure on them took place in 1875-76; and in that year the Government expenditure on aided secondary schools accordingly fell from Rs. 1,96,000 to Rs. 1,53,000. In the three following years it ranged between Rs. 1,35,000 and Rs. 1,29,000; in 1879-80 it fell to Rs. 1,15,000; in 1880-81 to Rs. 90,000; and finally in 1881-82 to Rs. 77,000. There is therefore reason to believe that other causes, in addition to greater accuracy of classification, tended in these later years to

diminish the number of middle schools. Fear of reduction in the rates of aid, followed by actual reduction as the rules came gradually into force, appears to have had no slight influence in retarding the progress of middle education. The unaided schools returned for 1881-82 included 12 high and 299 middle schools for boys, and 23 middle schools for girls, educating together 4,929 pupils; and the large number of unaided schools appears to show how ill-adapted the new grant-in-aid rules were to the encouragement of private enterprise. The number of pupils in secondary schools of all classes shows a large apparent decrease; but if the necessary corrections are made on account of the two causes above specified, it will appear that there was little actual loss.

The reductions which we have mentioned as having been made in the amount of grants-in-aid, though arresting the progress of aided education, had a useful effect in bringing about an increase in the scale of fees. Committees, including Government officers and the managers of aided schools, were appointed to consider the rates of fees in schools of every class, with the result that, while the fees in all schools were raised, higher rates were fixed for Government than for aided schools, and for schools in the town of Madras than for those in the mofussil.

231. Secondary Education in Bombay: Before 1854.—The history of education in Bombay, from near the close of the first quarter of the present century to the end of this period, is chiefly a record of missionary enterprise and of the operations of a private society. Though the efforts of the Missionaries were for the most part confined to elementary vernacular education, yet at various places in the Districts English schools and schools for the training of teachers were opened between 1820 and 1840. In the town of Bombay itself, the Anglo-vernacular school established by Dr. John Wilson in 1832 (which in later years became the Eree General Assembly's Institution), and the Robert Money School established in 1837, testified to the efforts of missionary bodies.—The Bombay Native Education Society was established in 1823. With the assistance of Government in aid of liberal private contributions, it applied itself to the task of establishing vernacular schools throughout the mofussil, and of compiling and distributing improved school-books. The Society also opened in 1825 an English school in Bombay under a European head-master, which soon rose to a state of high efficiency; and it subsequently established schools in three other towns. In 1840 the Society gave place to the Board of Education, which thenceforward played a leading part in the history of educational progress, as the central organising body directing and supervising the extension of education of every class throughout the Presidency. Besides undertaking the control of vernacular education, the Board established a number of English schools, which were regarded as forming an essential part in any complete system of national education. The entire management of the Elphinstone Institution in Bombay was also entrusted to the Board. Sir Erskine Perry succeeded to the presidency of the Board in 1843. He was a strong advocate of English schools and of the theory of “downward filtration;” and during the nine years that he held office the number of English schools under the Board was doubled. After his retirement in 1852, the efforts of the Board were mostly directed to the extension of primary schools; but it was far from neglecting English education, and when it laid down its office in 1855, there was an English school in every District but one of the Presidency. The direct efforts of Government in secondary education were confined during this period to the establishment of the school departments attached to the Poona and Elphinstone Colleges.

1854 to 1871.—At the outset of this period there were, under the direct

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45 between 1873 and 1879. In the next three years, when the country had recovered from the effects of famine, the number again rose to 86; this increase having been effected without entailing any extra cost on the Government. Hence the general effect on Government schools of this class was that those for the maintenance of which Government is directly responsible, rose from 52 (10 high and 42 middle) to 6r (19 high and 42 middle); while those of a lower class, in which the extra cost is met by the people themselves, fell from 90 to 86. The total expenditure on Government secondary schools rose from Rs. 3,48,000 to Rs. 3,82,000; the whole of the increase being met by increased fees. The number of boys in Government schools increased during this period from 9,045 to 11,170; primary departments being in each case excluded. Efforts were made to give a more practical turn to secondary instruction by the establishment of agricultural and drawing classes in many high schools.

As regards aided schools, the state of the Provincial finances in 1875 led the Government to reduce the total allotment for grants-in-aid to Rs. 70,000. The reduction was not, however, intended to be permanent; and after 1878, as the pressure caused by the famine was lightened, the grants were again considerably increased in order to meet the increased demands arising from the greater number and efficiency of aided schools. A comparison of the first and last years of the period from 1871 to 1882 shows that the grants to aided schools of secondary instruction for natives only increased from Rs. 28,048 to Rs. 59,642, and the number of pupils receiving such instruction in aided schools from 4,662 to 5,561. During the same period, the grants to schools for Europeans and Eurasians increased from Rs. 49,508 to Rs. 64,718. The number of aided middle schools for native girls increased from 3 to 9, and the pupils in them from 198 to 555. The expenditure from public funds on the education of 11,200 pupils in 147 Government schools was Rs. 2,19,657; while that on the education of 5,600 pupils in 53 aided schools was Rs. 59,642.

On the whole the expenditure from public funds on Government and aided schools for secondary instruction showed no great increase during the period under review; at the same time there was an increase of 22 per cent, in the number of their pupils. The number of unaided schools also largely increased, from 39 with 1820 scholars in 1870-71, to 66 with 6,527 scholars in 1881-82; these being mostly schools under departmental management in Native States. A marked feature in the Bombay secondary system is that the schools, though few in number, have a much larger average attendance than in any other Province of India, being between two and three times as large as in Madras or Bengal. This fact is of importance in comparing the different systems in the point of view of economical working.

232. Secondary Education in Bengal.—In dealing with secondary education in Bengal, it should be explained at the outset that middle and high schools in this Province contain children reading from the lowest primary classes. The attendance in secondary schools will therefore appear far larger than in those Provinces in which a different system prevails. The necessary adjustment will be made hereafter, when we come to compare the figures for different parts of India; but meanwhile it will be sufficient to say that in Bengal 39 per cent, of the pupils in high schools, 78 per cent, in middle English schools, and 83 per cent, in middle vernacular schools, are in the primary stage. In the other Provinces of India most of these pupils would be classified under primary and not under secondary instruction.

Before 1854.—The establishment in 1817 of the Hindu College of Calcutta,

by the voluntary contributions of wealthy Hindus, defined the direction in which the desires of the native community had by that time set. The large-hearted benevolence of David Hare, and the missionary zeal of Dr. Duff, tended alike to the same end, namely, the spread of English education. In 1817 the School-Book Society was established by private effort, with the object of preparing and distributing text-books in English and the vernacular; and it shortly after received a Government grant of Rs. 500 a month, which it enjoyed for 60 years. The General Committee of Public Instruction was appointed in 1823, and soon began that controversy between the advocates of English and of oriental learning, which was finally settled by the publication of Macaulay's celebrated Minute. The policy of Lord William Bentinck and his successors was to increase the number of English colleges and schools; and the Council of Education, which in 1842 took the place of the General Committee of Public Instruction, aimed at providing each District with an English school. In 1855 the newly formed Department of Public Instruction received charge of 47 Anglo-vernacular schools with 7,412 pupils, besides 26 vernacular schools of the middle class, the remnant of the 101 "Hardinge" schools that had been set up under the Council of Education.

1856 to 1871 .—This period is characterised by the remarkable development of the grant-in-aid system, which was readily accepted by the people of Bengal as a means of providing themselves, beyond the necessarily limited range of the Government system, with the secondary schools that they required. Within a year and a half of the promulgation of the rules, the whole of the allotment for grants-in-aid was taken up by 79 Anglo-vernacular and 140 vernacular schools, chiefly in the metropolitan Districts. The grant-in-aid system steadily advanced in popularity; and by 1862-63 it had far outstripped that of departmental schools in the field of secondary education. In 1870-71, the number of Government high English schools had increased to 53 with 10,100 pupils; the middle schools, almost entirely vernacular, were 217 with 12,400 pupils. The aided system covered a much wider area, and included 80 high, 551 middle English, and 769 middle vernacular schools. There were also 19 high and 94 middle schools that were unaided; but they furnished no detailed returns to the Department. The expenditure by Government in aiding 1,400 secondary schools for boys, with 68,000 pupils, amounted in 1871 to Rs. 3,31,000. The Government expenditure on 270 secondary schools under its own management, with 22,500 pupils, amounted to Rs. 2,80,000. Throughout this period very liberal provision was made by Government for scholarships linking the lower schools by a progressive chain to the higher, and the higher to the colleges. The cost of these scholarships to Government was Rs. 1,42,000 in 1870-71, and almost from the first they were open to competition by pupils in schools of every class, Government, aided, and unaided.

1871 to 1882.—During this period, namely, in 1874, the Province of Assam was separated from Bengal, carrying with it 125 secondary schools. Between 1870-71 and 1881-82 the number of Government and of aided secondary schools alike decreased; the former from 270 to 245, the latter from 1,400 to 1,370. The decrease was due to the following causes: (1) the separation of Assam; (2) the return of schools for European boys under a distinct heading; (3) the stoppage of all new grants and the withdrawal of many old ones in 1870-71; (4) the reduction of the grant-in-aid allotment in 1876-77, necessitated by the pressure arising out of the famine in Behar; (5) the measures taken in the later years to prevent the multiplication of inefficient schools, which resulted in the transfer of some to the vernacular class, and in the withdrawal of grants from others. The reductions in 1870-71 which, in the words of the Director, "caused such widespread distrust of the intentions of Government

“ that it can only be described as a state of actual panic,” but the effects of which were more seriously felt in the two following years, were made in consequence of the desire of Government to transfer grants from secondary to primary education. In 1870-71 no girls' schools were specially returned as secondary • in 1881-82 the necessary classification was made. The girls schools of this class were, at the later date, 2 high, 5 middle English, and 15 middle vernacular. All but four were aided schools; and together they educated 1,051 pupils. Taking all classes of recorded schools together, it appears that during the period from 1870-71 to 1881-82, the number of high schools increased from 133 to 209; and that of middle schools from 1,537 to 1,682. The expenditure from public funds on 245 Government schools for secondary instruction, with 27,000 pupils, fell from Rs. 2,80,000 to Rs. 2,53,000. The public expenditure on grants-in-aid to 1,370 secondary schools, with 84,000 pupils, fell from Rs. 3,31,000 to Rs. 2,99,000. The reduction in the grant-in-aid allotment during the Behar famine was not again fully made up, owing to the constant and (latterly) the increasing demands made upon the State funds by primary education.

233. Secondary Education in the North-Western Provinces and

Oudh: Before 1854—The North-Western Provinces were created a distinct Government in 1843. When in that year the Local Government received from the Council of Education the control of educational affairs, in defining its future policy it pointed to the diverse conditions that prevailed in Bengal and in the North-Western Provinces, as showing how little encouragement was offered by the circumstances of the Upper Provinces to English education, and how small, comparatively, was the success that might be expected for English schools. It therefore resolved to lay special stress on the cultivation of the vernacular languages, and to employ them largely as the medium of instruction. At that time there were, besides the three colleges of Benares, Agra, and Delhi, with their attached school departments, nine Anglo-vernacular schools, of which latterly but three had disappeared in 1854,—namely, those at Bareilly, Sagur, and Ajmir. The cause of this serious decline in the number of schools may be traced to the attempts, often injudicious or premature, that were made to establish English schools after the issue of Lord William Bentinck's Resolution. The schools that survived at the close of this period were, if few in number, well organised and successful.

1854 to 1871. During this period improvement went on hand in hand with gradual extension; and in 1867-68 there were 31 Government schools in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, of which 8 read up to the matriculation standard and were therefore high schools, the remaining 23 being middle schools. In 1871 there were 88 high and middle schools under the control of Government, educating together 11,500 pupils. There were at the same time 82 high and middle schools, with 16,200 pupils, receiving grants-in-

It is to be observed, however, that the title of many of the middle English schools to be so classed lay solely in the fact that a little English was taught in them in addition to the vernacular course. Of another order were the tahsili schools, in which a sound vernacular education was given to such a standard as would justify their inclusion in the rank of secondary schools. The system spread and flourished, so that in 1865 there were in these Provinces some 18,000 scholars in schools of this class. In 1869, however, an increase in the rate of fees was followed by a sensible diminution in the attendance. The original grant-in-aid rules were modified in 1858, and were not unfavour-

* The tahsili schools, whose principle it was, while levying fees whenever they could, to admit many pupils free of cost. Still, the

system was slow in making its way among the people. In 1860, when the Government expenditure on education was about 9 lakhs, only Rs. 16,000 were given in grants. In 1864, under a more liberal code of rules, the amount granted to 72 schools and colleges was Rs. 80,000; and in 1870-71, 235 institutions received Rs. 1,76,000. But the great majority of these schools were still under the management of missionary bodies; and of genuine native effort in the promotion of secondary education there was little trace. At the headquarters of most Districts, Government high schools had been established; but in some cases there already existed an aided school which was thought to be adequate to the needs of the locality.

1871 to 1882.—The figures for this period show very extensive changes in the provision of secondary education. The number of Government schools appears to have risen from 88 to 522; but the increase is actually due to a mere change of classification. For 1870-71, the tahsili schools, then numbering 273, were returned under primary instruction, on the ground that the vast majority of their pupils were in the primary stage. For 1881-82, these schools (though not their primary pupils) are rightly returned as secondary. Again, the 455 middle vernacular schools of 1881-82 include a large number (not less than 200) of halkabandi schools which have reached the middle stage of instruction, and which are now no longer distinguished in the returns from tahsili schools of the same rank. The number of advanced halkabandi schools is not known for 1870-71, but two years later they were returned at 342. There is, therefore, little ground for supposing that the departmental system has been extended within this last period; though owing to ordinary processes of development, the 20 high and 35 middle English schools of 1870-71 had increased in 1881-82 to 25 high and 42 middle English aided schools the losses were severe. The number of English grants fell from 182 to 56. But it should be noted that 75 were returned in 1870-71 as aided, 75 were in reality having a small grant-in-aid for the maintenance of an attached school. Schools of this character were, however, soon found to be unsatisfactory; and the grants for the support of the English classes were withdrawn from a large number. A similar decrease took place in the number of aided schools for girls, which fell from 26 to 3. Generally, it may be noticed that the grant-in-aid system made very little way with the people, and that whatever advance there was in secondary education was due to the success of the Government schools. In 522 schools of this class, 6,500 pupils were educated at a cost of Rs. 2,25,548 to public funds; in 66 aided secondary schools, 2,700 pupils were taught at a cost to public funds of Rs. 53,442. The returns for 1881-82 give only 5 unaided secondary schools in these Provinces, educating 50 pupils.

234, Secondary Education in the Punjab,—Up to the year 1861 the number of students learning English did not exceed 4,500. Within the next five years the number had increased to more than 13,000. The belief that a knowledge of English would lead to profitable employment had got abroad; and it was ruled that an elementary English class might be opened in any vernacular school, if the people would guarantee a subscription of Rs. 15 a month, to be met by an equivalent grant from Government. In 1866 there was at the headquarters of nearly every District a Government or an aided mission school of a superior class. The grant-in-aid rules now in force had been sanctioned in the previous year; and in 1866 there were 18 schools of the higher and 52 of the middle class receiving grants-in-aid. Between 1866 and 1871 the number of English students greatly decreased. It had been decided to require

an elementary knowledge of the vernacular before allowing a boy to begin the study of English, and the total number of scholars learning English in the Punjab rapidly fell to below 8,000 in 1871; of these, the great majority were pupils in middle schools. The study of English, it was held, had then been placed on a sound footing, not only by the orders just quoted, but also by the regulation that the vernacular was to be employed as the medium of instruction up to the middle school examination, instruction through English being confined to subjects above that standard. In 1871 there were, under the management of Government, 4 high and 97 middle schools, English and vernacular; there were also 10 high and 37 middle schools receiving grants in aid. The total number of pupils in them was 14,800; but excluding the primary departments, the number of boys attending classes for secondary education, was estimated at 2,314.

During the following period, from 1871 to 1882, the number rose to 6,200. There was a sufficient improvement in the standard of attainments, and the promise of Government to reserve a share of official appointments for these who had passed the middle school examination, made these schools more popular. On the whole, however, there was little independent desire for education except as leading to employment, and the grant-in-aid system made but little way. Many of the schools classed as aided were virtually under departmental management, though partly maintained from local funds. In 1881-82, the Government schools for secondary instruction were 10 high and 53 middle English schools, besides one high and 125 middle schools of purely vernacular instruction. These educated 4,974 pupils, at a cost to public funds of Rs. 1,99,043. The aided system included 12 high and 22 middle English schools for boys and one middle school for girls, educating altogether 994 students, at a cost to public funds of Rs. 31,569. No unaided schools are returned for 1881-82.

235. Secondary Education in the Central Provinces—In these Provinces there were in 1861-62 only one Government high school (that at Jabalpur) and 3 unaided middle schools, educating together 1,046 pupils. By 1870-71 the number had increased to 4 high schools (2 Government and 2 aided) and 52 middle schools (44 Government and 8 aided); together they educated 6,758 pupils. In the last period there was a slight decrease in the number of schools. In 1882 there were 5 high schools (one Government and 4 aided), while the number of middle schools had fallen to 48 (38 Government and 10 aided). The expenditure from public funds on the education of 2,101 pupils in Government schools was Rs. 58,947; and on that of 671 pupils in aided schools Rs. 14,116. There were no unaided schools.

236. Secondary Education in Assam—In Assam, as in Bengal, high and middle schools contain full primary departments. On its separation from Bengal in 1874, the Province carried with it 9 high schools with 1,435 pupils, and 116 middle schools with 5,344 pupils. In 1882 the high schools had increased to 11, and the pupils in them to 2,264. Middle schools fell from 116 (26 English and 90 vernacular) to 81 (37 English and 44 vernacular); but their pupils increased to 5,913. During this period the efforts of the Department were directed towards making the schools more efficient and self-supporting, and many middle schools, which had not proved successful in that class, were reduced to the next lower stage. In 1881-82 the cost to public funds of the education of 3,403 pupils in 29 Government schools (9 high, 2 middle English, and 18 middle vernacular) was Rs. 39,827; and of that of 4,085 pupils in 54 aided schools (1 high, 28 middle English, and 25 middle vernacular) was Rs. 18,833. One high and 8 middle schools were unaided.

237. Secondary Education in Coorg—An Anglo-vernacular school was

opened "by Government in 1857 Merkara, and was placed under the charge of the head of the Basel Mission, to whom the general direction of education was entrusted. To the building of a new school and boarding-house the people of Coorg subscribed a sum of nearly B/S. 10,000. Subsequently it was determined to establish in each of the five talukas an Anglo-vernacular school, to serve as a feeder to the Central School at Merkara. These last, though giving instruction in English, are classed as primary schools. By 1882 the Merkara school had been raised to the Entrance standard; and in that year it educated *57 pupils in its high and middle departments at a cost of Rs. 7,518 to the State.

238. Secondary Education in Berar.—Two English schools were opened in 1862 at Amraoti and Akola* These were raised in 1866 to the status of high schools; and there were also at that time five middle schools teaching English. In 1871 the two high schools educated 208 pupils, and the middle schools, then increased to 44, contained 3,638 pupils, including primary departments. Between 1871 and 1882 there was no alteration in the number of high schools; but it was found that the number of middle schools was greatly, in excess of the requirements of the people, and the majority were reduced to the primary class. In 1881-82 there were 29 such schools, imparting a course of instruction extending over six classes, in the two highest of which English was taught. In all the schools there were 1,033 pupils, educated at a cost of Rs. 53,1971° the State.

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II.—HIGH AND MIDDLE SCHOOLS IN 1881-82.

Excluding pupils in attached middle schools, including pupils in attached primary schools, the number of pupils in attached primary schools in 1881-82 was 1,538. The returns of the number of pupils in middle schools in 1881-82 are given in the following table, including the number of pupils in attached primary schools.

School	English	Latin	Greek	French	German	Italian	Spanish	Portuguese	Other	Total
ANGAM	10	5	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	23
COORIC	15	8	4	2	2	2	2	2	2	38
BREAR	20	10	5	3	3	3	3	3	3	50
...

240. Changes of Classification between 1871 and 1882—Before proceeding to the remarks which the above Tables suggest, it may be well to present in a summary form the leading results which they exhibit. These results may be shown as follows :—

High and Middle Schools.

	1870-71.		1881-82.	
	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.
Government	80	69,690		62,525
Aid (1 □ . . . »)	2,237	132,784	1,863	111,018
Unaided	39	1,820	690	40,534
TOTAL	3,070	204,294.	3,916	214,077

A point which at once engages attention is that, while between 1871 and 1882 the number of secondary schools increased from 3,070 to 3,916, the number of pupils in them shows a much smaller proportionate increase, namely, from 204,294 to 214,077. It must not, however, be supposed that the actual increase is limited to that which the figures show. The returns must be understood in connection with a circumstance, now to be explained, which, makes any comparison between the figures of 1871 and those of 1882 a matter of extreme difficulty. In the former year, the high schools in every Province contained pupils in the middle stage of instruction, and in some they also contained pupils in the primary stage. In every Province also, with the exception of Bombay, the middle schools contained, pupils in the primary stage. By the Resolution of Government dated 6th January 1879, in which revised forms of return were prescribed for the Education Department throughout India, it was ordered that the middle, or the middle and primary, departments of high schools should be shown as separate schools, the primary departments of middle schools being similarly treated. Again, middle schools were uniformly defined as those in which the pupils are reading for a standard two years below that of matriculation; and thus no recognition was given to those schools which taught a course independent of University standards. After much correspondence the separation of the lower departments was effected in every Province except Bengal and Assam. On the part of Bengal it was urged that the proposal to split up the schools in the manner indicated was based on the general assumption of relations between different classes of schools which had no existence in that Province, and that it would involve an entire remodelling of the educational system. The force of these representations was admitted. The Government of India had no desire that the new educational forms should be so applied as to require a revision of the educational system, and a re-classification of all middle and lower schools in Bengal; and they were satisfied that such a general alteration of system should not be made merely as an incident of the alteration of the statistical forms of return. The various classes of schools in the several Provinces had, it was allowed, grown up in widely different circumstances; and they could not be compressed everywhere into the same mould. Consequently, while in other Provinces the middle and primary departments have since 1871 been shown as separate and integral schools, thus making any comparison of the number of schools and pupils a matter of great difficulty, a further element of disturbance is introduced by the exceptional treatment sanctioned in the case of Bengal. The general effect of the re-classification of schools on the statistics of secondary instruction can, however, be shown without difficulty. The number of secondary schools at

once received a nominal increase equivalent to the number of middle departments broken off from high schools,—that is, an increase equal to the existing number of high schools. The number of pupils suffered an immediate diminution by the transfer to the returns of primary education of the primary departments of middle schools, and in some Provinces of high schools. Within the region of secondary education itself, the number of pupils in high schools was reduced by the number of those in the middle departments, while the number in middle schools received an equivalent addition.

241. Comparison of Schools and Pupils in 1870-71 and 1881-82 —

The statistics may now be considered in the light of these explanations. For the sake of simplicity the comparison will be confined to schools for boys, and will exclude the minor Provinces of Assam, Coorg, and Berar. Though the Tables above given make no distinction, in case of Bengal, between pupils in the high, middle, and primary departments, yet the departmental returns enable us to separate, for high and middle schools in 1882, the number of pupils reading in the secondary stage of instruction, as understood in that Province. We have accordingly in the figures here given for 1882 excluded all pupils in the primary stage of instruction in Bengal; and in order to carry out the comparison more completely, we have also represented the middle departments of high schools in Bengal as separate institutions. In Bombay, primary pupils are excluded from the figures of 1870-71 as well as from those of 1881-82. The returns from the North-Western Provinces and Oudh make no distinction between high and middle schools, and no comparison under these subordinate heads is possible. We obtain, therefore, the following summary statement of schools for boys in 1870-71 and 1881-82 :—

PROVINCE.	HIGH SCHOOLS.				MIDDLE/SCHOOLS.				TOTAL SCHOOLS AND PUPILS.			
	1870-71.		1881-82.		1870-71.		1881-82.		1870-71.		1881-82.	
	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.
Assam	53	13,317	82	48,366	500	25,977	521	18,583	553	38,194	602	33,388
Bengal	20	8,114	48	7,993	186	10,215	200	14,768	206	15,329	57	2,700
Bombay	133	18,783	107	7,481	1,537	7,663	1,866	37,329		91,445		44,000
North-Western Provinces									267	24,914	880	3,871
Punjab	4	2,631	23	585	134	13,191	200	5,375	148	14,812	303	
Central Provinces	4	797	5	331	5	3,514	48	2,454	5	7,738	53	3,773
Total	224	39,531	364	78,366	1,799	56,707	2,847	78,400		196,528		107,962

* The figures for 1870-71 include Assam.

The foregoing statement shows that, in the five selected Provinces for which the returns are complete, the number of high schools has increased from 224 to 364. The number of middle schools has increased from 2,409, or, if the middle departments of high schools be added, from 2,633 to 2,847. The number of schools should strictly be added the 11 high and 81 middle schools returned for Assam in 1881-82, the figures corresponding to which in 1870-71 were included in the returns of Bengal. Altogether for the Provinces named in the Table, excluding the North-Western Provinces and including Assam, there is a real increase in the eleven years of 151 high and 295 middle schools. It is certain that the number of pupils has also increased, though the increase cannot be precisely computed, since we have no means of estimating for most Provinces the number in the middle and primary departments of high and middle schools in 1871. The only Provinces which afford the materials for a compari-

son are Bombay, in which the primary departments have been excluded from the returns of both years; and Bengal and Assam, in which they have been included in both. An examination of the detailed Tables given above will show that in Bombay the number of high schools has advanced within this period from 20 with 5,114 pupils, to 48 with 7,993 pupils; and that of middle schools from 186 with 10,215 pupils to 209 with 14,710 pupils. Hence the number of secondary schools for boys has risen by 25 per cent., and that of their pupils by 48 per cent. In Bengal and Assam the number of high schools for boys was in 1871, 133 with 18,782 pupils; besides 19 unaided schools, the number of whose pupils is unknown. In 1882 the number had risen to 218 with 46,011 pupils; the primary departments being included in each case. The number of middle schools for boys in the two Provinces together rose during the same period from 1,537 to 72,363 pupils (excluding 94 unaided schools), to 1,743 with 100,313 pupils; primary departments, which comprise the large majority of the pupils in schools of this class, being again included. But, except in the three Provinces named, no estimate can be framed of the increase in the number of pupils in secondary schools; we shall therefore confine our attention to the number of schools of that class, and proceed in the next paragraph to regard them under another aspect.

242- Relative Increase of Departmental and other Schools, between 1870-71 and 1881-82.—An important question which requires notice in this connection is, how far the increase above referred to was due to the direct operations of Government, and how far to private effort, aided or unaided. To the consideration of that point we now turn. It has been seen that the total number of secondary schools rose from 3,070 in 1871 to 3,916 in 1882. The former total included 120 girls' schools, and the latter 81. The circumstances of this decrease in the number of girls' schools will be noticed below; for the present it will be convenient to confine our attention to schools for boys, the number of which rose nominally (since at the later date middle departments were reckoned as separate schools, and at the earlier date but few unaided schools were returned) from 2,950 to 3,835. This apparent increase of 885 schools was distributed as follows: Government schools increased from 780 to 1,357, aided schools decreased from 2,131 to 1,813, and unaided schools (so far as shown in the returns) increased from 39 to 665. We are therefore met by the somewhat remarkable fact that within the period in question there was a decrease of more than 300 in the number of aided schools, against an increase of nearly 600 in that of Government schools. It will be presently seen that more than two-thirds of the increase in Government schools is merely nominal; but in order to bring out the facts more clearly a summary statement of the fluctuations for high and middle schools separately will now be given for the different Provinces of India, with the exception of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, the returns for which do not admit of a complete separation, and to which we shall again recur—

A.—HIGH SCHOOLS.

		1871.				1882.			
		Government.	Aided.	Unaided.	Total.	Government.	Aided.	Unaided.	Total.
Madras		14	38	1	53	22	47	12	81
Bombay		10	8	2	20	19	14	15	48
Bengal and Assam		53	80		133	60	97	61	218
Punjab	* «	4	10		14	11	12		23
deaf & blind Provinces	• • «	2	2		4	1	4	•	5
Minor Provinces	• *	2			2	3	1	•	3
	TOTAL	85	138	3	226	116	174	88	378

B.—MIDDLE SCHOOLS.

PROVINCE.	1871.				1882.			
	Government.	Aided.	Unaided.	Total.	Government.	Aided.	Unaided.	Total.
Madras	67	405	28	500	133	205	299	637
Bombay	137	12	37	186	28	30	51	209
Bengal and Assam	217	1,320	...	*537	212	1,309	222	1,743
Punjab	97	37	...	134	178	22	...	200
Central Provinces	44	8	...	52	38	10	...	48
Minor Provinces	45	45	30	30
TOTAL	607	1,782	65	2,454	719	1,574	572	2,867

The first of these Tables shows that Government high schools increased by 31 and **aided** high schools by 36. In the Provinces of Madras, Bombay, Bengal with Assam, and the Punjab, the list of Government schools was increased by from 7 to 9 in each case, either in pursuance of the declared policy of providing each District with a high-school, or by the gradual rise of middle schools. Aided high schools increased by 17 in Bengal, 9 in Madras, 6 in Bombay, 2 in the Central Provinces, and 2 in the Punjab. Furthermore, the recognition accorded to private effort contributed to the establishment of large numbers of high schools without the assistance of a grant-in-aid. Schools of this class are often opened in the hope of receiving a grant hereafter; and all are directly benefited, in most Provinces at least, by the advice and encouragement of inspecting officers, and in Bengal, Assam, and the Central Provinces, by the open competition for scholarships. Thus the establishment of even unaided schools in increasing numbers may be regarded as a measure, not only of the vitality of private effort, but also in some Provinces of the recognition and support accorded to it by the Department.

The **second** Table shows an apparent increase of 112 in the number of **Government** schools, but a decrease of 206 in that of aided schools of the **aa.TT'tt** class. If, however, the middle departments of high schools be treated in the figures for 1870-71 as separate schools, as they are in 1881-82 for all Provinces other **than** Bengal, it would appear that Government schools have increased by 82, and aided schools fallen off to the number of 264. This calculation, however, assumes that in 1870-71 every high school had an attached middle department, which was not always the case in Bombay. In Government schools the increase is confined to Madras and the Punjab, which added respectively 66 and 81 schools to the list. In each of the other Provinces there is a slight decrease in the number. The heavy reduction in the number of aided **mid-rite** schools shown in the Table is confined to Madras. The circumstances of this reduction have been discussed in an earlier paragraph of the present Chapter, in which it was described as being largely due to a more accurate classification, although grounds were shown for the belief that the revision of the grant-in-aid rules in the direction of greater stringency was not without its effect in checking private enterprise. In the other Provinces the changes are slight, the greatest being a loss of 15 aided middle schools in the Punjab.

As regards the North-Western Provinces and Oudh it has already been shown that the large apparent increase in the number of Government schools was due almost entirely to different modes of classification adopted for the

two years compared; and that the decrease of 126 shown in the number of* aided schools was, in the case of 75 of them, merely the abolition of the English classes attached on the grant-in-aid system to certain Government vernacular schools. The reasons which in the opinion of the Department rendered this course advisable are given in the following extract from the annual report of the Director of Public Instruction for 1877: "As it was " pronounced needful to retrench, there is no question but that the withdrawal of aid from subscription Anglo-vernacular schools outside sudder stations has " caused less harm and less retardation than if any other class of schools had " been concerned. No doubt they represented a certain amount of effort made " by the people themselves to obtain a better class of education for their children " than could be had in the vernacular schools, and this is the sole reason why they " were aided in the first instance; but it has been found in the majority of cases " that the effort was unwillingly sustained or fraudulently counterfeited. Even " under the most careful inspection, than which nothing is more difficult to main- " tain when Secretaries of Committees and inspecting officers are often changed, " there was always a feeling of uncertainty as to whether the teachers received " their share of pay from the subscription funds, or whether the fee entries in " the accounts were *bond fide* transactions. The teachers dare not complain, " because if the school was closed, they lost their living; and they preferred to " make a false affidavit to ruining themselves or compromising the tahsildars or " other people by whose influence these schools were established." The passage is instructive as showing how in many Provinces the same doubts and difficulties arose on the first introduction of the system of grants-in-aid; and it also leads to the reflection whether greater care at the outset in selecting the schools or classes to which aid should be given, might not in time have led to a considerable expansion of the system.

It thus appears that in Bengal and Assam taken together, and in the Central Provinces, departmental and aided agency supply respectively much the same proportion of the number of secondary schools as they did eleven years ago, while the standard has sensibly risen. In Bombay, aided private effort has made considerable progress, though the number of aided schools is still very small compared with, those of Madras and Bengal. We shall hereafter see, however, that small as the number of schools is, they are large and well-attended; and that in the spread of secondary education, Bombay is in no wise behind other Provinces. In the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab and Madras, departmental agency has to a large extent taken the place of private effort,—a fact which is the more remarkable in the case of Madras, since in no other Province of India has the capacity of private effort to provide the means of advanced education been more clearly shown.

243* Girls' Schools in 1870-71 and 1881-82.—The summary statistics of girls' schools are shown in the following Table :—

	1870-71.		1881-82.	
	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.
Government	« * »	6	325
Aided		6,162	50	137
Unaided * . . . j	7	267	25	309
□ i \ TOTAL . . I	120	6,429	81	2,071

The Government schools are confined to Madras and Bengal. In the former Province there are one high and three middle schools of this class, two of them being in the town of Madras; in the latter the Bethune School of Calcutta teaches in its school department up to the matriculation standard, and a new middle school has been opened at Dacca. In aided schools the fluctuations are more serious. Schools of this class for native girls are confined to the five chief Provinces of India, In Bombay and the Punjab alone has there been an increase; in the former of 6 schools and in the latter of one. The girls' schools of Bombay have an exceptionally large attendance, averaging over 60 pupils each. In Bengal there are now 18 secondary schools; but as in 1870-71 girls' schools were not classified, it cannot be stated how many of the 18 schools were then secondary. In Madras middle schools have fallen from 83 to 18, and in the North-Western Provinces from 26 to 3. The loss in Madras is ascribed by our Provincial Committee to a more accurate classification of middle and primary schools; and it has also to be remembered that schools for European girls are excluded from the returns of 1881-82. Still there is ground for believing, as already explained in the case of boys' schools, that the loss is not altogether nominal,—a belief which derives some support from the fact that in 1881-82 there were 23 middle schools for girls in Madras receiving no grants-in-aid. In the North-Western Provinces the reduction is a real one. The attempt to educate girls had, it was maintained, been prematurely made; and when in 1876 the financial position of the Government became such as to render economy essential, it was believed that the abolition of a large number of girls' schools was one of the measures that could be taken with least prejudice to education. Secondary and primary schools suffered alike in the reduction. Unaided secondary schools for girls are confined to Madras and Bengal; in the former Province there are 23, and in the latter two, one of these being a high school in Calcutta.

The number of secondary schools is not, however, an accurate measure of the progress of female education, as tested by the number of pupils. In Bombay, for example, the secondary schools for girls are so large that, although few in number, they contain more pupils than those of any other Province. The number of girls returned as being in the **secondary** stage of instruction in every Province of India are here given: Madras, 389, Bombay, 555; Bengal, 211; North-Western Provinces and Oudh, 68; Punjab, 8. These figures are of course subject to whatever corrections may be necessitated by the different range of what is known as secondary education in different Provinces.

244. Summary View of the Spread of secondary Education through private Effort.—In regard to the spread of secondary education in departmental schools, the chief Provinces of India exhibit no great differences; it is in connection with schools under private management that the differences come into prominence. Here we should note that there are two points of importance to be considered; the number of schools, and the number of pupils, which will be seen to bear no uniform relation to each other in the various Provinces of India. Our first consideration will be the number of the schools which, whether aided or unaided, are maintained by private effort. The number of such schools, as distinguished from the number of pupils attending them, is evidently of importance as indicating, in the first place, the desire of the people to rely on themselves for the spread of secondary education, and in the second place the willingness of the Local Government to aid their efforts over a large area, and at that early stage at which aid is most helpful. In this respect the chief Provinces of India exhibit the widest differences, even after the statistics of population are taken into account. The fact that the 68 millions

of Bengal maintain; with or without aid from Government, 157 high and 1,489 middle schools, while in the British districts of Bombay with 16 millions the people support only 22 high and 49 middle schools, would appear to point to differences either in the wants of the people and their efforts to supply them, or else in the policy of Government with regard to private effort in this branch of education. Unaided schools in Bombay, to the number of 7 high and 41 middle, are not here reckoned, because they are maintained from the revenues of Native States and therefore afford no indication of purely private effort. Madras, with nearly 31 millions, supports 60 high and 545 middle schools under private **management**,—rather more than one-third of the number in Bengal, while the population is nearly one-half; and it is significant that of the secondary schools maintained by private effort in Madras more than half are unaided, while the proportion is only one-sixth in Bengal. The Punjab, with 19 millions of people, has 12 high and 23 middle schools receiving grants-in-aid; and the Central Provinces, with 4 aided high and 10 middle schools to a population of 9 millions in British Districts, are far below the level of other Provinces in private enterprise; but it may be noted that in these two Provinces no unaided secondary schools have been returned. Though the statistics of the North-Western Provinces are not given in a sufficiently detailed form for exact comparison, yet the 61 English and 7 vernacular schools maintained by private managers may be approximately distributed into 26 high and 45 middle schools; and this, with a population of 44 millions, must be regarded as indicating either very great apathy in the matter of private effort or a disinclination in the Department to encourage it.

We now turn to the connected question of the number of pupils. In this point of view it is important to notice that the attendance of pupils in the secondary schools of Bombay, whether for boys or for girls, is far higher than in any other Province. Thus the departmental primary and secondary schools of Bombay have an average of nearly 80 pupils each; while in Madras, the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab, the average is only 40, 12, and 26 respectively. The special system of classification adopted in Bengal makes it difficult to institute any such comparison; but wherever the line of division between the upper and lower departments be drawn, it is at any rate clear that the average number of pupils in a secondary school in Bengal falls very far below that in Bombay, and probably below that in Madras. An even greater difference in the average attendance marks the girls' schools of Bombay as compared with other Provinces. The facts here noted point to a clear contrast of policy between Bombay and Bengal. We have seen in this and the preceding Chapters that, as regards secondary education, the Department in Bombay aims at combining economy of expenditure with an equal distribution of high and middle schools over all Districts. It is obviously more economical to aid a single well-filled school than a number of small and scattered institutions; and the attention paid to primary education in Bombay imposes on the Department the necessity of strict economy in education of a more advanced kind. On the other hand, this policy, it must be admitted, fails to secure for private enterprise in secondary education that widespread encouragement without which the people cannot be expected to set up schools for themselves. Another point must be noticed. The value of any such comparison as that instituted above is impaired by the fact that in different Provinces the range of what is understood as secondary education differs widely. Thus in most Provinces, as shown at the beginning of this Chapter, the secondary stage of instruction comprises four or five classes; in Bombay the number of classes in the secondary stage extends to seven, and therefore includes a much larger number of pupils. These differences of system are sufficient to prevent any accurate comparison; but

there are grounds for believing that the proportion of pupils under secondary instruction to the population does not differ very widely in the three chief Provinces of India.

245. Expenditure on secondary Schools.—Full details of the expenditure on secondary schools in each Province, and of the average annual cost of educating each pupil in schools of each class, are given in the two following Tables.

Expenditure on secondary

PROVINCE AND GRADE OF SCHOOLS.		DORMITORY SCHOOLS.*				AIDED SCHOOLS.*			
		English		Vernacular		English		Vernacular	
		Number	Value	Number	Value	Number	Value	Number	Value
XADBAS	High Schools For Boys	48,247	544	28,304	1,389	79,684	37,003	32,811	56,444
	High Schools For Girls	46	137	602	2,226	602	22,276	12	1
	Middle Schools For Boys (Vernacular)	51,949	12,094	62,784	2,226	*,9,053	48-65	41,457	374
	Middle Schools For Girls	428	113	223	339	764	29' 19	1,930	328
Total		9,052				9,052	9	656	154
TOTAL		1,10,50	13,090	6,648	3,6*5	*,9,503	42*20	77,*43	374
BOMBAY									
High Schools For Boys		1,19,681	20,274	86,169	10,627	*,36,751	44*69	17,087	13,204
Middle Schools		51,383	28,319	*,3,254	3,138	1,45,094	44*79	36,319	26,429
TOTAL		1,71,064	48,593	*,49,4*3	12,765	3,8*,845	44*73	59,64*	45,0*4
BENGAL									
High Schools For Boys		1,67,429	931	2,71,994	30,111	4,70,465	37*81	54,139	3,860
Middle Schools For Boys		15,278	4,600	7,667	275	23,820	33*18	1,20,201	7,288
Middle Schools For Girls		51,868	606	32,707	6,337	81,508	27*96	1,04,507	3,347
TOTAL		2,51,503	3,05,946	37,5**	5,97,098	51-23	2,84,121	14,385	2,92,074
X V. PROVINCES / High Schools For Boys		1,66,718	4,300	14,626	3,280	1,89,035	77*5	46,277	3,078
TOTAL		2,02,900	21,648	17,070	4,876	*,47,494	689	49,*34	4,*08
PUNJAB									
High Schools For Boys		50,946	684	4,655	4,047	56,286	12*20	21,522	2,387
Middle Schools For Boys		78,984	12,364	13,675	32	1,12,070	7*10	440	507
TOTAL		*,49,7*3	73,556	22,47a	4,079	*,49,830	8*99	28,125	3,444
CE AND PESHAWAR									
High Schools For Boys		43,268	7,749	5,092	2,428	57,937	11*36	8,78	1,812
TOTAL		51,118	7,749	6,185	2,428	67,560	9'15	12,382	*,734
MADRAS									
High Schools For Boys		36,444	21,271	1,679	49,374	50*13	1,685	1,331	133
Middle Schools For Boys		12,891	316	4,179	17,080	38*15	6,502	3,718	4,315
TOTAL		39,827	25,766	1,689	67,282	45**3	18,548	*,5*4	*,6,403
MADRAS									
High Schools For Boys		7,518	1,160	8,678	13'37				
TOTAL		7,518	1,160	8,678	13'37				
MADRAS									
High Schools For Boys		11,817	44	810	42,190	1*20	1*91		
TOTAL		53,153	44	954	54,*5*	1*76			
TOTAL		10,37,636	1,67,217	0,21,624	1,66,964	18,93,441	3392	5,*8,295	*,5,430

*Excluding expenditure on European and Eurasian schools.
† Excluding British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education

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other Provinces it varies from 12 and 13 per cent, in the Punjab and the Central Provinces to 20 per cent, in Madras. In Bombay, however, the proportion of 27 per cent, includes the large contributions made by Native States for the maintenance of their own schools, and is therefore no indication of the extent of popular support. Taking 'fees' and 'other private sources' together, it will be seen that in Madras and Bengal the contributions of the public to the cost of secondary education amount to about 68 per cent., and in Assam to 50 per cent. In the other Provinces the proportion is much lower.

247. Average annual Cost of educating each Pupil—The second of the foregoing Tables shows that the total annual cost of educating a boy in a Government high school, which is Rs. 46 for the whole of India, varies from Rs. 24 in Assam and Rs. 34 in Bengal to Rs. 162 in the Punjab and Rs. 239 in Berar. In an aided high school the cost for the whole of India is Rs. 33; varying from Rs. 21 in Bengal and Rs. 26 in Assam to Rs. 89 in the Central Provinces and Rs. 98 in the Punjab. In an unaided high school the average cost of Rs. 13 varies from Rs. 8 and Rs. 9 in Assam and Bengal to Rs. 73 in Bombay. The low rate in Bengal and Assam, where the average cost is greatly reduced by the primary departments of high schools, suggests a reason why such comparisons must always be received with caution. Thus in Bengal, when a high school contains nine or ten classes, the total annual cost of each boy in a Government school is Rs. 34; in Bombay, where there are four classes, it is Rs. 59; and in Madras, where there are only two classes, it rises to Rs. 77. For Coorg, Madras, the Central Provinces, and the Punjab an accurate comparison can be made; and it will be seen that the cost of educating each boy in a Government or aided school increases in the order in which the Provinces have been named, the cost in the Punjab being exceptionally high. High as it is, however, it is exceeded in the two Government high schools of Berar, where a boy's education costs annually Rs. 239, of which no less a share than Rs. 236 is paid for him by the State. In comparing the figures for middle schools similar caution must be used; for a middle school, which commonly contains three classes, has from two to five classes in Bombay and seven (including the primary department) in Bengal, while it has only two classes in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. The cost of each pupil in an aided school can be best elucidated by comparing it with the cost of a Government school in the same Province. In the whole of India, the cost of educating a pupil in an aided high school is 72 per cent, of the cost of his education in a Government high school; the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab, and Bengal being below this average; and Madras, Bombay, and the Central Provinces above it. It will also be seen that the cost of a girl's is far higher than that of a boy's education; the difference being much the greatest in the case of high schools maintained by Government.

248. Initial Standards in secondary Schools—On a compendious review of the course of study in secondary schools or departments throughout British India, it may be generally stated that; from the time of his entrance upon the secondary stage, a scholar receives instruction in the following subjects: English, the vernacular, arithmetic, geography and history; and that after a period of study extending over five years, three of which are passed in the middle stage and two in the high, he is brought up to the matriculation standard of the University. These general statements are, however, subject to large modifications in their application to different Provinces, as regards alike the contents of the course, the period during which it is studied, and its relation to the course below it. For example, English may be generally regarded as the subject which specially characterises the beginnings of secondary as distinguished from primary education. In some Provinces, however, English is

taught in primary as well as in secondary schools; in others it is not a necessary part of the course even in secondary schools, but may be replaced by a classical language, or mathematics, or elementary science. Similar differences prevail as to the number of classes comprised in a secondary school. In Bombay the course in secondary schools extends over seven years, three being spent in the middle and four in the high school. A comparison of the courses, however, shows that the initial standard of middle schools is considerably lower than the initial standard of secondary instruction in other Provinces, which corresponds more nearly, though not precisely, to the third standard of middle schools in Bombay. Understood in this sense, the period of secondary instruction may in Bombay also be taken to extend over five years, one being spent in the middle and four in the high school. In Berar, where the courses are also governed by the Entrance standard of the Bombay University, the middle-school course occupies three years, and that of the high school two years. In Bengal and Assam, where the courses in corresponding classes of different schools to some extent overlap, the secondary course may also be regarded as extending over five years, three in the middle and two in the high school. The same is explicitly the case in the Punjab and in Coorg. In the North-Western Provinces the course occupies four years, and in the Central Provinces six years, but in neither case do the Provincial Reports supply the initial standard of middle schools, so that the materials for an exact comparison are wanting. It will, however, be convenient, in order to furnish a more precise idea of what is generally understood by secondary education, to present in a tabular form a comparison of the initial standards, as above understood, of middle schools in which English is taught, in the three Provinces of Madras, Bombay, and Bengal. In Madras and Bengal this standard is reached after a five or six years' course in one school, in Bombay after a seven years' course in two schools.

Initial Standards of Instruction in Secondary Schools.

SUBJECTS.	MADRAS.	BOMBAY.	BENGAL.
	<i>Standard of the 3rd* Class of English Schools.</i>	<i>Standard of the 3rd* Class of Middle Schools.</i>	<i>Standard of the 5th* Class of Middle and High Schools.</i>
1. English	Third English Reader; writing: dictation, and grammar; translation into English and the vernacular; dialogues in the Reader to be learnt by heart; knowledge of English to be tested by sentences outside the test-book.	Third English Reader; writing, spelling, and simple parsing in English; translation into English and the vernacular; recitation of poetry.	Fourth English Reader; dictation and grammar, translation into English and the vernacular; recitation of select pieces of poetry.
2. Vernacular language	Fourth Reader, and short poetical passages not previously studied; dictation and grammar; recitation of poetry.	Prescribed portions of standard authors, in prose and poetry; dictation and grammar; recitation of 100 lines of poetry.	Prose and poetical Reader; dictation and grammar.
3. Arithmetic	To compound rules and vulgar fractions; easy decimals.	To decimals, compound proportion, and discount.	To vulgar and decimal fractions, and proportion; native methods of arithmetic.
4. Geography	Europe: maps to be shown.	Asia and India in detail; elementary knowledge of the world; map of India to be drawn from memory; with political divisions.	Asia and India in detail; general knowledge of the world; map of Bengal.
5. History	; Portion of the history of the world. (Agriculture may be substituted for history in rural schools.)	India to 1856.	Bengal.
6. Additional subjects			Euclid to I. 26* » Mensuration of lines, and native methods of mensuration. (The sanitary Primer, with an additional text-book.

* The classes are reckoned from the bottom of the school.

These **standards**, it will be observed, do not greatly differ. ' The Bengal standard covers a wider field than that of Bombay, but the latter within its narrower area is more complete. In Bombay the following subjects may also be optionally taken up by students of middle schools: (a) free-hand drawing; (b) model and object drawing; (c) practical geometry. Schools in which drawing is taught are examined once a year, and a prize is given to any scholar who passes in the first grade.

It should here be noticed that our Bombay colleagues take exception to the comparison of standards made above; and they urge that, owing to the greater attention paid to the vernacular in secondary schools in Bombay, a student necessarily remains a longer time in the secondary stage of instruction in that Province than in others in which the attention of pupils is more exclusively directed to English and the subjects of the University Entrance course. They consider that the lowest and not the third standard in middle schools should be taken as marking the beginnings of secondary education in Bombay; and they regard the former standard as being equivalent, except in the single subject of English, to the standards given in the above Table for Madras and Bengal. The practical bearing of the argument here put forward is that, in comparing the number of secondary pupils in different Provinces, no deduction should be made on account of those reading in the two lowest classes of a middle school in Bombay. Calculated in this way, the number of pupils in secondary schools in Bombay would, in proportion to the population, be above that of any other Province. We have already expressed the opinion that no accurate comparison is possible; and for those who wish to pursue the subject further, the Bombay standards are given in detail at page 114 of the Bombay Provincial Report.

249. The Place of English and the Vernacular in secondary

Schools.—In those schools in which English is taught, it may either be taught as a language merely, all substantive instruction in other subjects being imparted through the vernacular, or it may itself be used as the medium of instruction. It will be seen that wide differences prevail in this respect. Again, the description of secondary schools given in the preceding paragraph applies only to those schools in which English forms part of the course. That subject, however, is not everywhere regarded as a necessary element in secondary instruction; and in many Provinces, schools in which English finds no place are included in this class. The latter practice appears to have derived its origin or sanction from the principle enunciated in paragraphs 43 and 44 of the Despatch of 1854, in which Anglo-vernacular and vernacular schools were included in the same class, and the standard of instruction, in whatever language conveyed, was declared to be the most important element in classification. In Madras, middle vernacular schools form part of the recognised system, though the large majority of middle schools include English in their course. English is also taught as a necessary or optional part of the course in primary schools. In the lowest class of middle schools it is taught as a language only; in the higher classes of these schools and in high schools, it is the medium of instruction. In Bombay, there is nothing exactly corresponding to a middle vernacular school, since middle schools are defined by the teaching of English. But some approach to it is found in the addition of a fifth and sixth standard to the ordinary course in primary schools, after the examination which qualifies for admission to a middle school has been passed. If " middle school instruction " is understood to mean that which leads on to a high school, these standards will form no part of it, since they have been devised with exclusive reference to the requirements of candidates for the public service. But if by middle or secondary ins true-

tion is meant that which carries primary instruction to a higher point, the fifth and sixth standards, though taught in a primary school, may so far be regarded as belonging to the secondary system. In all middle schools the vernacular is the sole medium of instruction; in high schools English takes its place. In Bengal, the greatest value is attached to middle vernacular schools, which are regarded as the strength of the secondary system; and equal stress is laid on the employment of the vernacular as the medium of instruction. Until six years ago, English was the medium of instruction in all middle English schools. But in 1877, when the advantages of a different method had for some time engaged the attention of the Department, the course in English schools was assimilated to that in vernacular schools; English was taught as a language merely, in addition to the full vernacular course; and all substantive instruction in middle schools has since been imparted in the vernacular. In the middle departments of high schools in Bengal the old system still prevails. In these schools, in all of which English is taught from the lowest primary class, the text-books are all English; and arithmetic, history, and geography are taught through the medium of English. A movement, however, has lately been set on foot in Bengal, with the object of confining the use of English as the medium of instruction to the four or five highest classes leading up to the Entrance examination; and the plan has been tried as an experimental measure in a few Government and aided schools. In the North-Western Provinces there is a well-marked class of middle vernacular schools, in which English and algebra are replaced by equivalent subjects in the vernacular. In middle English schools all instruction in the lower classes is conveyed through the vernacular. In the Punjab the same distinction of secondary schools into English and vernacular exists; and it applies not only to middle but to high schools. In middle schools, equivalent subjects are substituted for English; while the course in vernacular high schools is determined by the Entrance standard of the Punjab University. Our returns show only one high school of this class, that at Jalandhar; but in fact the Government high schools at Jalandhar, Ludhiana, and Delhi have both English and Vernacular Departments, to which may perhaps be added the school classes of the Oriental College at Lahore. In middle English schools the vernacular is the medium of instruction. The Central Provinces follow an entirely different system. There are no middle vernacular schools properly so called; and the nearest equivalent is found, as in Bombay, in the addition of a fifth and sixth class to the four classes of an ordinary primary school. Again, throughout the secondary course English is employed as the medium of instruction. Coorg follows the example of Madras, and Assam that of Bengal. In Berar there are no vernacular secondary schools, and English is employed as the medium of instruction throughout.

250. The Vernacular as the Medium of Instruction—A consideration of the diversities of practice exhibited in the preceding paragraph suggests the following observations with regard to the employment of the vernacular as the medium of instruction in secondary, or at any rate in middle, schools. The opposite practice is defended in the Report of the Central Provinces Committee in the following words: “Instruction [in middle schools] is given usually through English. Every effort is made to teach English as a living language. It is felt that a boy well grounded in English and having a good acquaintance with one of the vernaculars, may, after he leaves school, carry on his own education. Boys well grounded in these languages pass more easily and with greater success through their high school course than those less perfectly acquainted with English/5 In the same way, it was formerly contended in Bengal that to convey instruction in history, geography, and science through the medium of English, and with English text-books, was to teach the pupils English as well as the

special subjects of study; and, by enlarging their stock of English words and forms of expression, to prepare them more thoroughly for the Entrance examination and the subsequent University course. The more English reading they got, the better English scholars they would be; while the study of English was continued long enough to enable them to profit by instruction in other subjects conveyed through that language. The force of this argument is denied by some; though it may be accepted so far as it applies to the method of instruction in high schools—understanding that term to signify the upper classes reading for the Entrance examination. By the time a pupil arrives at that stage of instruction, he may be assumed to have advanced so far, both in English, and in other subjects, as to be able to profit by instruction conveyed in a foreign tongue. The point is much less clear in the case of middle schools, in which, speaking generally, a pupil enters for the first time upon the study of history, science, and mathematics, concurrently with English. If all these subjects are taught through English, instead of through the pupil's own vernacular,—just as, under earlier systems of instruction, Latin and Greek were taught to English boys, not through English but through Latin,—it is to be feared that his progress in them will be slow. Proficiency in English will, in fact, be gained at the expense of his general education. When, indeed, a pupil passes from the middle to the high school, a compensating condition arises in the fact that his greater familiarity with English will enable him to advance with more rapid steps in his other subjects, which are at that stage to be taught through English. A similar consideration may be held to apply to those high schools in Bengal in which English is taught from the earliest primary stage, and is employed as the medium of instruction almost from the outset. Every pupil in these schools is practically reading for the Entrance examination; and the question of any disadvantage which he might suffer if his education, so conducted, came to an end at an earlier stage, hardly arises. It is different, however, with the course and the pupils in middle schools. The question cannot be argued on the assumption that every pupil in a middle school goes on in due course to a high school; the reverse is notoriously the case. In Bengal, for example, it is known that the great majority of the pupils of middle English schools complete their education therein. Hence it becomes of the utmost importance to consider whether, to such pupils, the use of English or of the vernacular is most advantageous as the medium of instruction. For them, at any rate, it would appear that the employment of the vernacular is preferable. A boy would in such a case receive a sound vernacular education suited to his station in life, and he would acquire a useful, if elementary, knowledge of English in addition. To a boy so educated even an elementary knowledge of English is of unquestionable value, not only by reason of the mental training which its acquisition has involved, but also in regard to his business or other relations with the outer world. It may be added that the experience of the Education Department in Bengal offers a remarkable contrast with that of officers in the Central Provinces, as described in the passage quoted at the beginning of this paragraph. That which led the Bengal Department first of all to consider the feasibility of the change was the marked superiority, at the Entrance examination, of those pupils who had joined the high school with vernacular, compared with those who came with English scholarships. In Calcutta, again, where the freest choice is open, both to pupils in selecting a school, and to managers in determining what constitution will make their school most popular, it is found that all the great middle schools of the city are purely vernacular ^ and that a large majority of the pupils in the Hindu school, excluding those who have been educated therein from the beginning, come from vernacular and not from English schools. We have dwelt at some length on

the example of Bengal, because it is in that Province that the question has been most fully and frequently discussed, and the widest experience of opposite systems gained. We do not put forward any definite recommendation on this subject, but at the same time we commend its consideration, in the light of the observations above made, both to Local Governments and Departments, and in an equal degree to the managers of aided and unaided secondary schools. It is a question in the decision of which much must depend on local circumstances; and hence the freest scope in dealing with it should be left to the managers of schools, whatever be the view which the Department in any Province may be disposed to adopt.

251. Schools exclusively Vernacular.—It has been shown that in several Provinces of India purely vernacular schools are either recognised or may be regarded as forming part of the secondary system; and that in one Province, the Punjab, recognition is given to high as well as to middle vernacular schools. We entirely concur in the principle which underlies this classification, and which has indeed been explicitly declared in the Despatch of 1854, that schools in which no English is taught may, if their standard of instruction in other subjects is sufficiently high, be placed in the same rank with English schools. One point, however, it seems desirable to notice. In the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab, where, as in Bengal, vernacular schools of secondary instruction are expressly recognised, the study of English is replaced by other equivalent subjects, such as a classical language, or a higher standard of mathematics, or both. We are inclined to think that some such equivalent substitution would strengthen the middle schools of Bengal. Under present arrangements, the standard of middle vernacular schools in that Province is lower than that of middle English schools by the whole subject of English; and accordingly, in the examination for middle scholarships, a higher limit of age is fixed for English candidates than for vernacular candidates. We would suggest that such a distinction is unnecessary; and that if vernacular schools (or at any rate the *best* of the class) are to take their true place in the secondary system, the course should be amplified by the addition of subjects forming a fair equivalent—either Sanskrit or Persian (for a scholarly knowledge of the vernacular) or algebra (with a view to improved arithmetic), or both. These subjects form an important part of the course in Normal schools in Bengal, and no difficulty would arise on that score; indeed, they once formed part of the middle school course, until Sir George Campbell's reforms in 1872 attempted to give a more practical character to the instruction in those schools. At the same time we are far from saying that the final standard for middle vernacular schools in Bengal (to be described in a subsequent paragraph) is not high enough to justify the inclusion of those schools under the head of secondary; and if the suggestion that we have made be adopted, it would be for the Local Government to consider whether it should not be adopted as an alternative merely, so as to allow of that variety in educational institutions which, within necessary limits, is recognised as encouraging private effort and as facilitating educational progress. On this subject, also, we therefore make no definite recommendation.

252. Middle Schools: their different Aims.—In the preceding paragraphs we have described the character of middle schools at their initial stage; and we have shown that, alike in the standard and in the method of instruction there is no exact correspondence between different Provinces. We shall now show that as the course in middle schools advances towards its higher stages, the divergence continues and is even increased. As has been indicated in a previous paragraph, it arises partly from initial differences in the standard, and

partly too (though in a much lower degree) from differences in the final standard of matriculation; but chiefly from the different views that may be taken of the place and purpose of middle schools in the secondary system. Are they to be regarded as feeders to high schools, their course of instruction being ultimately governed by the requirements of the Entrance examination ? or do they occupy an independent position, their studies having no relation to those prescribed by the University, and being determined by the separate requirements of pupils, whose education terminates at that stage ? In most Provinces both alternatives are more or less fully accepted. The middle school, in one of its forms, leads on directly to the high school course; and in another (whether that form be explicitly recognised or not as coming within the sphere of secondary instruction), it prepares pupils for a standard independent of the University. The independent status of middle schools is, however, more generally recognised in connection with vernacular than with English education; and for the most part, a pupil learning English in a middle school must learn it in a way determined by the requirements of the Entrance examination. But in some Provinces the course of instruction in middle schools affords their pupils an opportunity of gaining some acquaintance with English independently of University standards. In Bombay, for example, the fifth or final standard of middle schools, the passing of which in the first class qualifies a candidate for the upper grades of the subordinate public service, is theoretically identical with the corresponding standard of high schools, which is governed by the matriculation examination coming two years later. But in practice important modifications are allowed. Thus in those Government Anglo-vernacular schools which are called “ independent,⁵⁵ a standard History of India may be read instead of the prescribed English authors; less time may also be given to the classical language, and more to the vernacular. These provisions, coupled with the requirement of the “Sanitary Primer⁵⁵ from all candidates for the public service, impart a certain degree of elasticity to the standard. In Bengal, English may be optionally added to the course in any middle vernacular school; that course being altogether determined by the requirements of pupils who, without wishing to go on to the University, seek a better education than is given in village schools. But in the middle schools of Madras, the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab, and the Central Provinces, there is no standard of English altogether independent of the Entrance examination.

353. Middle Schools independent of University Standards—Having regard to all these differences of practice, we are of opinion that no advantage is gained by insisting on uniformity in the course of instruction in middle schools ; but that the adoption of an alternative standard or standards answers a real need. In paragraph 17 of the Resolution appointing the Commission this question is referred to in the following terms: “ The great majority of those who prosecute their studies beyond the primary stage will never go beyond the curriculum of the middle, or at furthest of the [high schools. “It is therefore of the utmost importance that the education they receive “should be as thorough and sound as possible.” The passage quoted touches another question, to be discussed hereafter, namely, the institution of a second standard in high schools for those pupils who do not intend to proceed to the University. But it has an equal bearing on the point which we are now considering, inasmuch as it declares the principle that the instruction in any class of schools should provide for the requirements of those who go no further. Some pupils look forward to a University career; their instruction in the middle stage must, therefore, be governed by University standards. There are others whose education, though going beyond the primary* will terminate at the middle stage ; and in their case no such requirement exists. Some of

these last may require elementary instruction in English; others will not value it, or are not in a position to pay for it. In both cases alike the course of instruction should correspond with the social status of the pupils, and the general character of their occupations in after-life. They are above the status of the cultivator or the petty trader, and therefore require, since they have time for it, a course of instruction containing more liberal elements; they are not destined for a professional or literary career, and therefore may rightly look for a more practical training, into which an elementary course of English may or may not enter. In this connection we may refer to the following passage from the evidence of a witness quoted in the Madras Provincial -Report, page 94; "There is a large class of people, such as merchants with native constituents, who care nothing for English. If there was an examination, not quite so hard at first as the middle school examination, but gradually raised to such a standard, serving as a test for admission to vernacular appointments under Government, a great impetus would be given to vernacular education." The Madras Provincial Committee remarks to the same effect (Report, page 160): "The middle school examination can be passed by a candidate ignorant of English; but such candidates are regarded as exceptions, and must obtain special permission. If the scheme were so modified as to give the same facilities to vernacular candidates as to those who know English, it seems probable that a considerable impetus would be given to middle school education in the vernacular, especially for pupils who do not go beyond."

254. Final Standards of middle Schools#—With these observations we proceed to consider and compare the final standards of middle schools, distinguishing vernacular standards from those which include a knowledge of English; and in the latter distinguishing those which are independent of, from those which are dominated by, the University course.

Madras.—In Madras there is a single final standard for middle schools two years below the Entrance examination. It includes the following subjects:—

1. English: Fifth Reader, with dictation, translation, and grammar
2. Vernacular: composition, translation, and grammar.
3. (a) Arithmetic; to compound proportion and simple interest.
(b) Algebra: to end of fractions.
(c) Euclid: Book I.
4. Geography: Asia, Europe, and part of India; map-drawing.
5. History: India (part), and England to Henry VIII.



Bombay.—In Bombay the third standard of middle schools is that for admission to the high school course of four years, and might therefore be supposed to mark the close of the middle school course. But it will be convenient to consider the fifth standard, which in middle schools is that of qualification for the upper grades of the public service, and in high schools comes two years below matriculation, as marking the boundary between the middle and the high stage of instruction. The standard is as follows, the examination being conducted in English throughout:—

1. English: Standard authors; 100 pages of prose, 450 lines of poetry; dictation, grammar, translation, composition, and recitation.
2. (a) Vernacular: a standard author, translation, composition, grammar, and recitation,
(b) Classical language: elementary Sanskrit, Latin, or Persian.

3. (a) Arithmetic : to square and cube root.
(6) Algebra: the four rules (with integral terms).
(c) Euclid : Book I.
4. Geography: the world, with special knowledge of British Foreign Possessions; general knowledge of other portions of the globe; map-drawing from memory of any country in Asia.
5. History : history of India, and England to Henry VIII.
6. Cuningham's Sanitary Primer.

This is the standard in high schools, and bears a close relation to the Entrance standard two years later. In " independent " middle schools, which read more exclusively for the public service examination, a standard history of India may be read instead of the English text-books, and the classical language may be replaced by a fuller course of the vernacular. There are also optional subjects, such as agriculture, theoretical and practical, and drawing.

The vernacular* standard, qualifying for the lower grades of the public service, which is the sixth or final standard of primary schools, but which we have referred to as belonging in one aspect to the secondary system, includes the following necessary subjects, to which elementary drawing and practical agriculture may be optionally added:—

1. Vernacular: Sixth Reader; grammar and recitation; letter-writing in the local character and reading the current hand.
2. (a) Arithmetic : the whole; native accounts and book-keeping.
(b) Euclid : Book I.
3. Geography: general, and elementary physical; India in some detail; map-drawing.
4. History: India and its government.
5. Sanitary Primer.

It may be repeated that the only ground for referring to this **standard** under the head of secondary instruction lies in the fact that it is two years beyond the standard of admission to middle schools (or ordinary primary standard), and corresponds in point of time to the third standard in such schools. On the other hand, as the latter standard has been treated in the preceding paragraphs as that which marks in Bombay the beginning of secondary instruction, and as there is nothing in the subjects enumerated above which is really inconsistent with primary instruction as commonly understood in its higher stages, there is no actual necessity to regard the standard in question as coming within the secondary system. Moreover, it has always been regarded by the Government of Bombay as marking the highest development of their primary system, and as giving effect to their policy of providing in village schools a good elementary education suited to the wants of a progressive society. Taking this view of the case, there will practically be only one standard for middle schools in Bombay, of which English forms a necessary part.

Bengal—In Bengal a very different method is pursued. There are three separate standards for pupils in middle schools or departments of schools, of which two include English and one is purely vernacular. One English and one vernacular standard are complete in themselves, and have no relation to any higher course. We shall first describe the standard that marks the close of the middle stage in high schools, two years below matriculation—

1. English: Robinson Crusoe or other similar book; Poetical Reader; translation and grammar.

* For fuller details see paragraph 172, Chapter IV.

2. (a) Vernacular; or
(b) Sanskrit: Rijupath, Part II; and Patra-kaumadi, Part II.
Translation and re-translation of vernacular.
3. (a) Arithmetic: to proportion and interest.
(b) Algebra: first four rules.
(c) Euclid: Books I and II.
4. Geography: general; map-drawing.
5. History: Creighton's Rome or other historical primer.

For independent middle schools reading, not for any high school standard but for that of the middle scholarship examination, the following subjects are prescribed:—

1. English: Lethbridge's Easy Selections from Modern English Literature, or any book of a similar standard of difficulty; translation, dictation, grammar, recitation of poetry,
2. Vernacular: composition and grammar.
3. (a) Arithmetic: the whole, and native arithmetic.
(5) Euclid : Book I.
(c) Mensuration: to triangular areas.
4. Geography: general and physical, with special knowledge of India; map-drawing.
5. History : India, and outlines of general history,
6. Additional subjects: preservation of health, and the ^{fc} Sanitary Primer," in addition to one of the following—
(a) Elements of natural philosophy.
(5) ^{3s} botany.
(o) „ chemistry.

In middle vernacular schools the course is the same, with the exclusion of English. In schools of both classes, no text-books are prescribed in English or in the vernacular language.

North-Western Provinces and Oudh.—The following are the subjects of the Anglo-vernacular middle class examination, corresponding to the 7th standard of English schools, and two years below matriculation:—

1. English: Lethbridge's Easy Selections; dictation, translation, and grammar.
2. (a) Vernacular; or
(6) Sanskrit or Persian.
Vernacular translation and composition.
3. (a) Arithmetic: to decimals and compound proportion.
(6) Algebra: to easy simple equations.
({?) Euclid: Books I and II.
4. Geography: India and general.
5. History: India to 1857.
6. Additional subjects: physical geography, and the "Sanitary Primer."

In middle vernacular schools, the following are substituted for English and algebra: a fuller course in Persian, Urdu, or Hindi; more advanced arithmetic; mensuration; and a primer of physical science or physiology.

Pnnjab.—The final standard of middle schools is the third, which as in

previous oases is two years below matriculation. The English standard comprises the following:—

1. English: Lethbridge/s Easy Selections; Poetical Reader; translation and grammar.
2. (a) Urdu: dictation and essays.
(b) Persian selections.
3. (a) Arithmetic: the whole.
(b) Mensuration.
4. Geography : the world.
5. History: India.
6. Optional subjects : Arabic, Sanskrit, or elementary physics.

In the middle vernacular examination, Euclid and algebra are substituted for English. This alternative standard is, it will be remembered, not strictly an “independent” one, as it is governed by the requirements of the matriculation examination of the Punjab University, to be passed two years later.

Central Provinces*—As in Bombay, there are no middle vernacular schools; but the addition of a fifth and sixth standard to the ordinary course in primary schools may be held to supply their place. This standard includes the following subjects, the course in Hindi schools being taken as a type: Selections from the Ramayan, with dictation and grammar; the whole of arithmetic; the first book of Euclid, algebra to simple equations, and mensuration ; geography, general and physical, with map-drawing; the history of India, Hindu and English periods; and the elements of physical science. This is a good standard, and the schools in which it is taught may be fairly regarded as coming within the sphere of secondary education.

The middle schools properly so called are those in which the course terminates two years below matriculation. In these schools English is a necessary part of the course, and, as before stated, English is also the medium of instruction. The subjects of instruction are given below :—

- x. English: Royal Reader No. III; grammar, dictation, and composition.
2. (a) Vernacular: as in the fifth class of primary schools.
(b) Sanskrit or Persian, where the staff is able to teach it.
3. (a) Arithmetic: the whole.
(b) Algebra: to simple equations.
(c) Euclid: to I. 33.
4. Geography of the world, and map-drawing; elementary physical geography.
5. History of India: Muhammadan period.

Other Provinces.—The course in middle schools of the other Provinces of India presents no special points of interest. The middle schools of Coorg generally resemble those of Madras, with the exception that Huxley’s Introductory Primer of Science forms part of the final standard. Assam follows the lead of Bengal with some modifications, and Berar that of Bombay.

255* Middle Schools: Summary—On the whole, we find little complaint or cause of complaint with regard to the course of instruction given in middle schools throughout India. Differences there are, but they are only such as naturally follow from the independent growth of separate systems under diverse conditions: and we see no advantage in any attempt to secure uniformity by reducing to a common type systems differing in detail but of acknowledged value. We attach the highest importance to what is described, in paragraph 10 of the Resolution appointing the Commission* as “that freedom and variety of educa-

“tion which is an essential condition in any sound and complete educational “system;” and we entirely concur in the view therein expressed that “it is “not a healthy symptom that all the youth of the country should be cast, as it “were, in the same Government educational mould.⁵⁵ We desire to confirm and enforce that principle by repeating the suggestion already made, that the interests of pupils who desire education above the primary standard will be more fully secured, if a difference is recognised between those who look to the matriculation examination and a subsequent career at the University, and those whose education stops short of the matriculation standard. It may be said that in general they represent two different social classes, with different aims in life, and therefore with different requirements in the way of education to fit them for their respective callings. The bearing of these remarks will be more fully seen when we come to consider the question of an alternative standard for high schools different from that of the University.

256. Pinal Standards of high Schools—We have now noticed the various points in which the several classes of middle schools throughout India differ from one another, and we have seen that they exhibit nothing like uniformity or approach to a common type. With high schools, however, this divergence comes practically to an end. The course in every high school is determined by the matriculation standard of one or other of the Indian Universities, and it is only in so far as these standards differ from one another that any divergence is found. It remains therefore to compare those standards.

Madras.—The standard comprises the following subjects :—

- (1.) ENGLISH.—One paper on the prescribed text-books; the other containing a passage from the text-books for paraphrase, and questions on the language generally.
- (2.) Optional LANGUAGE.—The list comprises five classical languages (Oriental and European) and six vernacular. One paper contains questions on the text-books and on the grammar and idiom of the language selected; the other consists of passages for translation from and to English into and from that language, and in the case of vernacular languages, of original composition.
- (3.) MATHEMATICS—
 - (a) Arithmetic, including proportion, decimals, and interest.
 - (5) Algebra, to simple equations.
 - (c) Euclid, Books I—III, with easy deductions.
- (4.) GENERAL KNOWLEDGE—
 - (a) The History of India.
 - (5) General geography, and India in detail.
 - (c) Roscoe’s Primer of Chemistry.
 - (d) Balfour Stewart’s Primer of Physics.

Bombay.—The standard comprises—

- (1.) ENGLISH.—No text-books are prescribed; but the books usually read in a high school are of the following kind: An easy play of Shakespeare; a book of *Paradise Lost* or one of the shorter poems of Milton; a poem of Cowper or Wordsworth, such as the *Task* or the *Excursion* ; or a prose work such as an Essay of Macaulay, or Washington Irving’s *Sketch-Book*. The paper includes (a) one or more passages of English verse for paraphrase, or (as an alternative) one or more passages in the candidate’s vernacular for translation into English ; (5) questions in grammar, composition, and analysis.

(2.) **OPTIONAL LANGUAGE**—The list comprises six classical languages (Oriental and European) and five vernacular, with French and Portuguese. No text-books are prescribed ; the paper is of a similar character to the above.

(3.) **MATHEMATICS**—

- (a) Arithmetic, the whole; the examples to be worked from first principles and not merely by rules.
- (b) Algebra, to simple equations.
- (c) Euclid, Books I—IV, with easy deductions.

(4.) **GENERAL KNOWLEDGE**—

- (a) History of England and of India.
- (ft) Elementary geography, physical, political, and mathematical.
- (c) Elementary knowledge of the mechanical powers.
- (d) Elementary chemistry.
- (e) Outline of the solar system.

In English every candidate is also examined *mm voce*.

Calcutta.—The standard comprises—

(1.) English.—A short prose text-book is prescribed, of which candidates are required to show accurate knowledge and understanding; but they are expected to have read a much wider course in English. One paper is confined to the text-book; the other contains general questions on grammar and idiom.

(2.) Optional language.—The list comprises seven classical languages (Oriental and European) and six vernacular, including Burmese and Armenian. Text-books are prescribed for each language; and, except in the case of those who take up Greek or Latin, every candidate is required to translate, into some vernacular language of India, passages of English of considerable length and difficulty which he has not previously seen.

(3.) **MATHEMATICS**—

- (a) Arithmetic, including proportion, decimals, and interest.
- (5) Algebra, to simple equations.
- (c) Euclid, Books I—IV, with easy deductions.
- (d) The mensuration of plane surfaces, including the theory of surveying with the chain.

(4.) **HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY**—

- (a) History of England and of India.
- (6) General geography,
- (<?) Physical geography.

257. Comparison of the Standards in the different Universities —

We do not think it necessary to go into any detailed examination of these standards for the purpose of estimating their relative difficulty. In past controversies on this question, the Bombay educational authorities have maintained that their standard is more difficult and requires a more advanced course of reading than those of other Universities. We shall hereafter see that the course for the B.A. degree occupies only three years in Bombay, while four years are required in the other Universities. On the assumption, therefore, that the B.A. standards are equivalent in the three Universities, the contention

of the Bombay authorities would appear to be made out. It has also been seen that the course in Bombay, from the alphabet to matriculation, occupies a longer period than in Madras or Bengal; and in comparing the courses of instruction in middle schools and departments, we have generally pointed to a somewhat higher degree of difficulty as characterising the Bombay standards, both initial and final. On the other hand, it is alleged that pupils from schools in the Central Provinces, some of whom attend the matriculation examination of the Bombay and others of the Calcutta University, find the attainment of the B.A. degree a matter of equal difficulty, whether they have matriculated at Bombay or at Calcutta. There is, however, one feature of the matriculation examination in Bombay which is peculiar to that University, namely, the introduction of a *viva voce* test; and though that is a question, not of the standard but of its application, yet as it is alleged to be fatal to 20 per cent, of those who have already satisfied the written test, such a requirement certainly increases the difficulty of passing. At the same time, the difficulty of standards is so much a matter of interpretation by individual examiners, that we regard it as an unprofitable task to attempt to compare in detail those of the three Universities. We content ourselves with expressing the opinion that each of them affords a satisfactory course of instruction for students in secondary schools who intend to proceed to the University. We note, however, that the Bengal Provincial Committee have expressed the opinion that "of the standard of the Entrance examination appears to be below that attainable in present circumstances by high schools, and a reference might be made to the University as to the advisability of revising and raising it, with the object of strengthening the secondary schools of the country." It will be observed that the course at Calcutta, while it includes mensuration, surveying, and a text-book of physical geography, has nothing of experimental science, differing in this point from the other two Universities. In Bombay a wide range of general knowledge is expected of a candidate, a requirement which has not satisfi^all-ciritics; for example, Mr. Justice West remarks, in speaking of part of the '^ourse: "In physics and natural science the deficiency is simpljf lamentable* ;and general "information means general ignorance.⁵⁵ Any furttuk' consideration ;el / these questions must, however, be left to the Universities concerned. , • □

The course in vernacular high schools reading for the Entrance examination of the Punjab University is of a somewhat similar standard of difficulty. The subjects of instruction are—

- (1) Persian.
- (2) Arabic or Sanskrit.
- (3) History of England and of India.
- (4) Mathematics and elementary science.

The text-books and the course of instruction are vernacular throughout. Candidates are admitted to the examination without restriction as to their place of education.

258. Proposals for an alternative Standard in high Schools —

Throughout India high schools have hitherto been regarded not only or chiefly as schools for secondary instruction, intended for pupils, whose education will terminate at that stage, but in a much greater degree—it may almost be said exclusively—as preparatory schools for those who are to become students of the University. It has been seen that middle schools comprise two well-marked classes,—those in which the scheme of studies is, and those in which it is not, governed by University standards. With one exception which will be presently noticed, no such distinction exists in the case of high schools, in all of which the course of instruction is determined by the matriculation standard, which again is arranged solely with a view to subsequent University studies. One of the questions put to witnesses before the Commission ran as follows :

^{ie} Is the attention of teachers and pupils in secondary schools unduly directed “to the Entrance examination of the University ? The replies to this question are singularly unanimous. It has been felt in all Provinces, and urged by many witnesses, that the attention of students is too exclusively directed to University studies, and that no opportunity is offered for the development of what corresponds to the “ modern side ” of schools in Europe. It is believed that there is a real need in India for some corresponding course which shall fit boys for industrial or commercial pursuits, at the age when they commonly matriculate, more directly than is effected by the present system. The University looks upon the Entrance examination, not as a test of fitness for the duties of daily life, but rather as a means of ascertaining whether the candidate has acquired that amount of general information and that degree of mental discipline which will enable him to profit by a course of liberal or professional instruction. In these circumstances, it appears to be the unquestionable duty of that Department of the State which has undertaken the control of education, to recognise the present demand for educated labour in all branches of commercial and industrial activity, and to meet it so far as may be possible with the means at its disposal. The Honourable Mr. Justice West, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Bombay, has expressed his views on this point in the following terms: “ The preparation for ordinary business may with advantage^{4 6} proceed up to a certain point along the same course as that for literature “ and science. It is a defect of our system, as I understand it, that it does “ not provide for a natural transition to the further studies which may be the “ most proper for a man of business, nor even propose to encourage and conduct “ such studies. When a boy reaches the age of about fourteen he may have “ plainly shown that he has not the gifts that would make him a good subject^{cc} for literary culture. His tastes or his circumstances may disincline him to “ be an engineer or chemist. He ought not then to be forced on in a line in “ which failure is almost certain. He should be put to work on matters that he “ really can master unless quite exceptionally dull, such as arithmetic, rudiment- “ ary economics, mercantile geography, the use of manures, or others determined “ by the locality of the school and its needs. . . . The extension of this know- “ ledge should be along those lines where it will be grasped and incorporated by “ the interests and teachings of active life. Still it should be education, aiming “ at making the mind robust and flexible, rather than at shabbily decking it with “ some rags of^c business information * or low technic skill. For these different “ aims the present system makes no sufficient or distinct provision.” We do not attempt to define the course of instruction which might be imparted in schools of the kind suggested. The Departments in many Provinces have dealt satisfactorily with the question of independent courses in middle schools; and it may well be left to them, in consultation with school managers and others interested in education, to determine the character and constitution of similar schools of a more advanced kind. Indeed, to attempt to fix a course for “ independent ” high schools would be to fall into an error of precisely the same character as that against which the proposal is directed; it would be to substitute one uniform course for another. But what is now chiefly needed is variety; so that the educational system as a whole may be such as more fully to meet the needs of a complex state of society. Nor would the introduction of the proposed alternative course into high schools involve any great expenditure; for the bifurcation of studies need not take place until the student is within two years of the Entrance examination,—that is, until he has been eight or nine years at school. His studies in the middle department will be sufficiently practical to prepare him for those he will take up in the modern side, sufficiently liberal to fall in with those of the academical side. It may be added that, with the establishment of these schools, full recognition would be given to the salutary principle that the course of instruction

in schools of every class should be complete in itself. The Madras Provincial Committee draws attention to the fact that little more than half of those who pass the matriculation examination of that University proceed to the First Arts standard; and though the disparity is less conspicuous in other Provinces—in Bengal, indeed, it is stated that more than 90 per cent, of those who matriculate are admitted to colleges—yet it is probable that in all Provinces the institution of the alternative standard would meet the popular wishes and answer a real need. We therefore recommend *that in the upper classes of high schools there be two divisions; one leading to the Entrance examination of the Universities, the other of a more practical character, intended to fit youths for commercial or non-literary pursuits.* It will be observed that the considerations which we have adduced in reference to this Recommendation apply with equal force to separate schools and to separate departments of schools.

The single exception to which reference has been made is found in Bombay. In that Province children of agriculturists are encouraged by scholarships of the value of Rs. 4 a month to attend the model farms connected with high schools, for instruction in practical agriculture. The course includes chemistry, physics, botany, physical geography and geology; besides which the student may take up land-surveying and physiology. There are also many drawing-classes, attendance at which is voluntary; they are attached to Government schools alone, but students of other schools are encouraged to attend them. Certificates of two grades are given; and school-masters who qualify themselves by teaching drawing in their own schools receive a monthly grant.

259. Recognition by Government of accepted Standards

encouragement and recognition that may be afforded to the proposed alternative course, different opinions have been expressed. The Bombay Provincial Committee believes that it would not be possible to organise a “modern side” in high schools without the co-operation of the University. On the other hand, a witness, whose opinions are quoted with approval by the Madras Provincial Committee, observes that it would be neither possible nor desirable for the University to modify the matriculation examination so as to make it a test of fitness for the practical pursuits of life. But whatever action may be taken by the Universities on this question (a subject to which we shall recur in our Chapter on Collegiate Education), it is at any rate clear that the Education Department in each Province can give efficient help towards the establishment of such schools, by declaring them eligible for grants-in-aid, and by instituting examinations to test the progress of pupils and giving certificates to those who pass. The success of these schools will, however, practically depend upon the market value of the education which they give. It is because we believe that a practical or commercial education of a high standard would in time acquire a real and independent market value, irrespective of any adventitious aids, such as the recognition of the certificate as qualifying for a Government appointment, that we have advocated the establishment of this class of schools. It is in the last resort not to the University, nor to the Department, nor in any exclusive way to Government as the dispenser of patronage, that these schools must look for support. They will stand or fall according to the view which the employers of educated labour throughout the country may take of their capacity to give a suitable training to youths intended for practical occupations. In this point of view, much might be done to ensure the public acceptance of the standard if the Railway Companies, the Banks, and other commercial associations or firms were consulted as to the kind of education which in their opinion would be most useful to the class of men they require. At the same time it is impossible to ignore the high value which the opinion of the country sets upon any certificate recognised as

qualifying for admission to the public service. The Madras Provincial Committee quotes, as an accurate reflex of native opinion, a reply given by one of the witnesses to the effect that no education will be appreciated unless it looks to an examination qualifying for Government employment. We are, therefore, of opinion that recognition of this kind—not in any exclusive way, but merely to the same extent that is desirable in the case of equivalent standards of instruction—should be accorded to the alternative standard that we propose to establish. In any well-organised system of public instruction, the schools of the country should be capable of meeting the ordinary requirements alike of public and of private employers. In considering what standard should be generally accepted as qualifying for the public service in its subordinate grades, we have formed the opinion that the ordinary school standards are sufficient as a general rule, and independently of any special test that may be required in particular Departments. We therefore recommend *that when the proposed bifurcation in secondary schools is carried out, the certificate of having passed by the final standard, or if necessary by any lower standard, of either of the proposed alternative courses, be accepted as a sufficient general test of fitness for the public service.* It will be understood that this Recommendation refers as a general rule rather to subordinate appointments, than to those offices of responsibility and emolument in which a high degree of intelligence is required, and for which a liberal education has been commonly thought necessary.

260- Misconceptions attaching to the Term 'High School'—We

have already shown at great length what different significations are attached to the term 'high school'. In one Province it is understood as comprising two classes, in another four, while in a third it contains pupils in every stage of instruction from the alphabet to matriculation. We do not propose to alter, as regards these differences, any of the existing school-systems, which have been based on different models and have grown up in different circumstances. Uniformity could not be secured except at a price out of all proportion to the advantages to be gained. It therefore becomes necessary to provide in some other way for the comparison of educational statistics in an accurate and intelligible form. Accordingly we think it desirable to introduce into the educational returns a Table showing the stage of advancement reached by pupils in all schools of general instruction, independently of the names that may be given to those schools in different Provinces. A comparative statement of the number of pupils in high schools is now altogether misleading, since many pupils who in most Provinces would be shown as belonging to primary schools are in Bengal and Assam returned under high schools. The proposed Table will supply the required correction, and enable a true comparison to be drawn between one Province and another. We do not enter into any further detail upon this point, which has been discussed at length in the above sense by the Committee independently appointed for the Revision of Educational Forms.

It is necessary to refer to another misconception to which the use of the term 'high school' is exposed. In the discussions that have taken place in this country and still more in England as to the spread of what is called high education in India, the terms 'high school' and 'high education' have occasionally been treated as correlative. It is hardly necessary to point out that the term 'high education' so far as it has a fixed signification at all, refers to the education given in colleges, and is synonymous with superior or University education. It seems undesirable to maintain the use of a term which is liable to an erroneous interpretation, especially when it is remembered that in the earlier years following the receipt of the Despatch of 1854, the term 'high school' was applied and confined to institutions teaching to the First Arts standard,—that is, to second grade colleges as they are now

commonly called. In the Despatch itself (para. 43) schools of the class now called high *were* ranked in *the same* class with purely vernacular schools, and were carefully distinguished from those institutions in which 'a high degree of education' was imparted, and which were to form the colleges affiliated to the University. The only important division of institutions for general instruction is into the three classes of primary, secondary, and high or collegiate. Each of these main classes can be further subdivided, if necessary, into an upper and a lower section, a division that already exists in the case of primary instruction. Secondary schools may thus be conveniently divided into an upper and a lower branch; and if the 'high schools' of the present classification be henceforward called 'upper secondary' or briefly 'upper' schools, little risk of confusion will arise. Middle schools, which will form the Mower secondary' class, may retain their present name without inconvenience. We therefore recommend *that high and middle schools be united in the returns under the single term 'secondary schools'; and that the classification of pupils in secondary schools be provided for in a separate Table showing the stage of instruction, whether primary, middle, or upper, of pupils in all schools of primary and secondary education.* This Recommendation will not interfere with the classification of secondary schools as 'upper' and 'middle' respectively, if required by departmental convenience. It only provides that in public returns required by the Government of India, the name 'high school' shall be given to no institution in which the course of instruction does not go beyond the matriculation standard.

261. Results of recognised Examinations—Having shown in the preceding paragraphs what are the existing standards for middle and high schools, as prescribed respectively by the Department and the University, we subjoin a Table showing the results of the authorised examinations. For those Provinces in which a double standard for middle schools exists, the results are amalgamated. The figures, however, must be understood with the following important reservation. The Table only shows the proportion of passed candidates to the number presented for examination; it does not show the much more significant proportion of the number passed to the total number of students reading in the classes from which the candidates came. This information was asked for by the Commission, but it could not be furnished by every Province. Yet it is clear that the latter proportion alone supplies a sufficient and satisfactory test of the general efficiency of the teaching. Probably in all Provinces a certain number of students are refused admission to the examinations, because they do not satisfy the preliminary test which each school generally applies in order that ill-prepared candidates may bring no discredit on it. The provision is useful in the interests of discipline, but it has its attendant drawbacks. Thus it will often happen that a school in which the candidates for examination are carefully selected will show a better proportionate result than one in which the instruction is much more thorough, but which sends up all or most of its students. It may also happen that in Government schools, where fees are of less importance, boys unlikely to pass withdraw their names before examination more largely than in aided schools, which have a sufficient inducement to keep such students and to make the best of them. Such a difference of practice, wherever it exists, would obviously tend to the disadvantage of aided schools, in any tabulated statements drawn up in the form which we have been compelled to adopt. Reference will again be made to this subject in Chapter VIII, when we come to compare the efficiency of Government and aided schools. It is sufficient here to state that aided schools, both high and middle, in Madras have suffered by the adoption of the imperfect form now given, and that aided high schools in the Central Provinces have benefited; in the other Provinces the two modes of estimating results present but slight comparative differences.

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54, and 48 per cent, of success respectively; among unaided schools, the Punjab, Bombay, and Madras, with 69, 68, and 60 per cent. In Bengal, where the results for aided and unaided schools are not separated, the proportion of success is 70 per cent.

264* Examination Of Girls*—The above results are for boys only ; those for girls may be briefly noticed. For the matriculation examination, one Government and two aided girls' schools in Bengal sent respectively three and two candidates to the examination, of whom all but one (from the Government school) passed. One girl candidate also appeared and passed from a school in the North-Western Provinces. For the middle school examination, 175 girls appeared from 16 schools, 2 Government and 14 aided. Of these, 84 passed, the percentage of success being 65 in Government and 49 in aided schools. The candidates belonged to Madras, Bombay, Bengal, and the North-Western Provinces, the first-named Province being credited with 32 successful candidates, and the last with 30.

265- Race and Creed of Pupils—The following Table shows the race and creed of pupils in secondary schools for natives. The last two lines of the Table are of chief importance. They show the proportion, for high and middle schools, of each race or creed to the total population and to the school-population respectively. Hindus, who form 73 per cent, of the whole population, comprise 83 per cent, of the pupils at school; while Muhammadans sink from a proportion of 22 per cent, in the population to 11 per cent, at school. The enterprise and the social position of Parsis, and the attention paid to the education of Native Christians, are illustrated by the fact that the former are 35 times and the latter nearly 6 times as numerous in school as in the population. Sikh pupils on the other hand are only one-half, and " Others " only one-fourth, as numerous as their place in the population would lead us to anticipate.

Bace and Creed of Pupils in high and middle Schools for 1881-82.*

PBOVTNCE AND GBADES OP SCHOOLS.		5 1 £ i s c		ii 9		EEHA&5S.		
				s' 9				
MADRAS	High J For Boys . English SCHOOLS f., Girls . English MIDDLE Schools Boys . English () Girls Vernacular TRAJING COLVEG T02 UASTSES IS SICOFD H-SCHOOLS.....	4,418 10,365	113 77	1,041 *545 i	90 1,268 j	19. 18,553	4,836 51 *97	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls.....		20,808		8<K i		*4,3*2 j		
BOMBAY (f Schools*) J' EdglLh SCHOOLS f., Girls, English		4,418 10,365	113 77	1,041 *545 i	90 1,268 j	19. 18,553	4,836 51 *97	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls.....		14,808		1,671		*a,543		
High (For Boys . English SCHOOLS f., Girls, English		39,357 33,300	3,831 5,032	55 59	15 i	33 j	184	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls.....		72*0S13,9		1,104		878 j (<i>i>39>ig8 ! () Inelasure of ii<		
MIDDLE Schools Boys . English () Girls Vernacular		48,189 177	7,735 4	157	3	5,354 3,803	62 8	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls.....		86-55		*10		*63 i		
MIDDLE Schools Boys . English () Girls Vernacular		4,296 3,107	592 796	6	3	6	6	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls.....		Tom		7*3<3		1,688		
PUNJAB		High (For Boys . English SCHOOLS f., Boys . Vernacular MIDDLE Schools Boys . English () Girls Vernacular Tbahih& Collie3 yos Mjusikls of Secor- da ex Schools	48 33 1,740 1,409	91 64 303 398	50 13 107 398	453 1,228 *67 *70+	8	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls.....		N. 6,006		*7/		*03		
CENTRAL (SocJ*) B*25 P*OTCEH s'1 ^ * EB,ltab		29S =,133	*7 230	241	*03	10	10	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls.....		2A37		*47		*77*		
ASSAM		MIDDLE Schools Boys . English () Girls Vernacular ,	1,903 2,073 2,462	302 396 474	180 8	17 29S 40	M&4 *9*9 *9*4	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls.....		2S'2		14*33		241		
COOEG		MIDDLE Schools Boys . English () Girls Vernacular	3 m	3 s	4	4	4	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls.....		X S 4		4		*57		
H.A. f f c H E O O L } For - EE?liiii OTsrstCtSJM^,1., a.ja.i . j		250 i	*	j	3'	t	r;	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls.....		250 i		*		j		
TOTAL (High f For Boys SCHOOLS f., Girls..... MIDDLE Schools Boys () Girls TRAJING COLVEG T02 UASTSES OP SB* j coarDajer SCHOOLS		54,970 1,038,616 64 59	5^33 17,816 31 *7;	62 497 1 5'	*,042 85< 1 ...	97% 13,571 474 16	15* 181 474 1	3P3! 1,45,624 *6; *7
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls.....		1,76,306		*1*79		564		
Proportion of each race or creed to total population		22*35		*M		*4		

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 f Excluding Ajmir, British Bunaa and all Natire States that administer their own ejnnera of edmnien.

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267- The following Statement summarises the results of the foregoing Table as regards the languages taught in high and middle schools for boys:—

	Total scholars.	Learning English.	Learning a classical language.	Learning a vernacular.
HIGH SCHOOLS.				
Government.....	24,978	24,840	12,935	11,622
Aided	19,814	18,844	7,899	12,875
Unaided	20,407	17,515	6,582	8,645
TOTAL	65,199	61,199	26,616	33,142
MIDDLE SCHOOLS.				
Government.....	37,222	19,996	7,438	33,528
Aided	86,767	37,842	3,338	82,305
Unaided	1,115	1,504	307	1,145
TOTAL	146,807	69,342	11,223	131,990

In Government high schools practically every pupil learns English; in private, especially in unaided, high schools there is a perceptible proportion of scholars not learning English. The Table also shows the varying proportion in which classical languages are studied in Government and in private high schools. In those of the former class more than half the pupils learn a classic; in aided and unaided schools the proportion is only one-third. It will be remembered that in the three Universities of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, students are allowed the option of taking up either a classical or a vernacular language at the Entrance examination. But while in Madras only one student in six takes up a classical language, in Bombay nearly three-fourths of the candidates do so. It should, however, be stated that the University of Madras allows a vernacular language to be taken up for the higher examinations on the apparent ground that some of the languages still spoken in Southern India possess an ancient literature the study of which, combined with that of English, affords an adequate mental discipline. The Bengal Provincial Committee states that the number of those who take up a vernacular is steadily and rapidly decreasing, and that in a few years the number will probably become so small as to justify the Calcutta University in making a classical language compulsory at the Entrance examination. Middle schools exhibit a similar difference in this respect; the proportion of pupils learning a classical language falling from 20 per cent, in Government to 4 per cent, in private schools. The proportion, of pupils learning English is greatest in unaided schools; and there is little doubt that whatever view the Department may take of the proper relation of English to the vernacular in middle schools, the most popular constitution of these schools is that which assigns a prominent place to English instruction. The proportion of pupils learning English is much the lowest in aided schools—a fact which is explained by the large number of middle schools in Bengal in which English is taught to few pupils or none. The vernacular is learnt by 91 per cent, of the pupils in middle schools; and there is no great difference in this respect between Government, aided, and unaided schools.

The following Statement shows for each Province the number of pupils who learn English (a) in secondary schools, (b) in institutions of all classes. It will be remembered that the secondary schools of Bengal and Assam include

primary departments, and that all pupils in high schools learn English from the lowest primary class :—

PROVINCE.	PUPILS LEARNING ENGLISH.	
	In secondary schools.	In all institutions.
Madras	23,542	61,098
Bombay.....	23^58	23,739
Bengal	71,503	75>677
N.-W. Provinces.....	5,393	18,449
Punjab	3^129	11,074
Central Provinces	2,772	5,446
Assam	3^70	4,200
Coorg	157	503
	5j^33	1,^33

268. Text-books in secondary Schools—There is no serious complaint as to the text-books in use in secondary schools, and we have accordingly no specific Recommendation to offer under this head. The machinery for providing text-books in the different Provinces, the different degrees in which freedom in the choice of books is permitted, and the faults that have been noticed in them, will be fully discussed in Chapter VII of this Report, where the appropriate Recommendations will also be found. The course in high schools is determined by the requirements of the matriculation examination; and accordingly in some Provinces the text-books, at least for the highest class, are settled by the independent authority of the University. The Universities of Calcutta and Madras prescribe for that examination fixed text-books in all subjects. The University of Bombay follows a different system, and prescribes no text-books. The Provincial Reports give full details of the books most generally read. • They include such books as Bain's higher English Grammar, Edith Thompson's History of England, and Macmillan's Science Primers, in addition to the text-books in English literature and in the classical and vernacular languages. In middle schools, again, the text-books are selected so as to lead up to the final standards fixed for schools of that class. In English, a graduated series is generally chosen, either Nelson's Royal Reader or Chambers' series, or some other of a similar kind in common use in England; though in Bombay and Madras a provincial series is sometimes used. In nearly all Provinces English grammar is taught throughout the middle course by means of English books exclusively; but in Bengal the alternative and perhaps preferable method of teaching English grammar through the medium of the student's own vernacular, is rapidly gaining ground; and the same plan is generally followed in Assam. In Bombay, Bengal and Assam, the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab, vernacular text-books are for the most part employed as the medium of instruction in mathematics, history, geography, and physical science; in Madras and the Central Provinces, English text-books are almost exclusively used.

269. School Libraries.—The necessity for maintaining libraries in secondary schools is obviously not so great as in the case of colleges. It is on all grounds desirable that students, especially the more advanced students, of colleges should supplement by a general and varied course of reading the necessarily limited range of study prescribed by the regulations of the University. But for students whose knowledge of English is bounded by the requirements of the Entrance examination, a supplementary course of general reading is practically out of the question. An English boy at the same stage of instruction will find in the Waverley Novels, in voyages and travels, and in tales

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situated at head-quarter stations, are however better off. The Government high schools have fairly good libraries, sufficient for the requirements of masters and pupils; and year by year, as funds admit, additions are made to them. An aided high school in the town of Sylhet is allowed the use of the zila school library. The single high school in Coorg and the two high schools in Berar are well furnished with books of reference and of general reading, amounting to several hundred volumes in each case.

The foregoing summary would appear to show that insufficient provision is too often made for establishing or maintaining libraries in aided schools, and that the necessity for such provision is much greater in high than in middle schools. We therefore recommend *that a small annual grant be made for the formation and maintenance of libraries in all high schools*. By limiting the Recommendation to high schools, and by observing the ordinary requirement that grants to aided schools are made on condition of adequate local contributions, it is obvious that no great burden will hereby be laid upon educational funds.

270. School Accommodation, Apparatus, and Furniture.—Government schools are generally well provided in these important respects; in aided schools, as might be expected, the provision is in general far less satisfactory. In some Provinces the grant-in-aid rules admit of aid being given to secondary schools for the purchase and renewal of furniture and apparatus, as well as for the erection (though not in all cases for the maintenance) of school buildings. It is desirable that a more settled and satisfactory method of assisting aided schools in providing themselves with the necessary apparatus and furniture should be laid down, and with this view we have adopted the Recommendation with which this paragraph closes. It is obvious that to teach geography without a proper supply of maps, elementary physics without models and instruments, or elementary chemistry without the rudiments at least of a laboratory, would be to confirm native teachers and students in those radical faults of instructive method, which it is one of the chief duties of the Education Department to remove. We proceed to consider the accounts given of secondary schools under this head.

Madras.—The high school course includes a primer of chemistry and physics; and accordingly every high school, whether Government or aided, has to be furnished with the necessary apparatus for teaching and illustrating those subjects. The aided schools indeed appear to be somewhat more fully equipped in this respect than the Government schools; and the grants given for that purpose have been liberal. For buildings, the grant-in-aid rules provide that a proportion of one-third of the total cost may be given, or one-third of the rent. A furniture grant may be given once for all.

Bombay.—All secondary schools are furnished with the necessary wall-maps, globes, &c. The high school course includes an elementary knowledge of chemistry, the mechanical powers, and the solar system; and every school possesses the apparatus required for the illustration of these subjects, consisting generally of a telescope, microscope, orrery, magic lantern with astronomical slides, electric machine, air-pump, &c., together with meteorological and chemical instruments. A few of the schools in the Presidency also have museums of natural history. Grants for the purchase of apparatus may be made to aided schools.

Bengal.—The rapid increase in the number of pupils in recent years has necessitated in many cases the erection of new buildings for the zila school,

or substantial additions to the existing buildings. By the orders of the Bengal Government in 1877? the inhabitants of the District are required to co-operate in all expenditure of this kind, the Government contribution being generally limited to one-half, and in most cases being much less. Little difficulty is generally found in raising substantial subscriptions for the zila school, an institution in which the inhabitants commonly take great pride. In still later orders, indefinite extensions of the zila school building are deprecated; and the proper remedy is declared to lie in encouraging the establishment of aided schools. In Government middle schools there is no want of accommodation, light, or ventilation. The rules for building grants to aided schools specify no definite rate of aid; and of late years the practice has been to give a furniture grant in consideration of expenditure on building. The apparatus in high schools consists of a chain and compass, and whatever else is required for practical surveying, in conformity with the inclusion of mensuration in the University course. The middle school course includes an elementary knowledge of either natural philosophy, chemistry, or botany; the first of these being most commonly chosen. But to teach it efficiently a few simple instruments are required; and in aided schools this has long been felt as a great difficulty. The teachers trained in Normal schools have gone through a practical course in each of the subjects named; but without a stock of apparatus, models, or diagrams, their teaching is necessarily defective.

North-Western Provinces—The high schools are generally large and commodious, and provided with the necessary apparatus. The same is true of the tahsili schools. Grants up to the limit of half the total expenditure may be made for building, enlarging, or furnishing, schools.

Punjab.—An English secondary school usually contains one large room with several class-rooms attached. High schools have been supplied with the apparatus necessary for teaching physics and chemistry according to the science primers. There is a budget allowance of Rs. 2,500 a year for the renewal of furniture in Government schools, much of which is old and unsuitable. In middle schools the apparatus is usually limited to maps and a black-board.

Central Provinces.—The high school of Jabalpur is well accommodated, and additions are made to the building as pupils increase. The aided high schools have good buildings in almost every case. The accommodation in middle schools is generally excellent as regards light and ventilation, and the furniture sufficient. Government schools, both middle and high, are properly furnished with the apparatus of teaching.

Assam*—The high school buildings are generally much too small for the present number of pupils; and though all are fairly well furnished, many of the older buildings are dark and ill-ventilated. Government middle schools at head-quarter stations are fairly well ventilated and furnished. Those in the interior, and private schools generally, are much inferior to these; though many managers of aided schools have of late years begun to build fairly good houses. One of the conditions of obtaining a grant is that a suitable house must be provided for the school. The only apparatus, whether for high or for middle schools, is that required for teaching practical surveying, and this is provided in all Government schools. In aided and unaided middle schools, the head-master either borrows the necessary instruments, or omits the practical part of the middle scholarship course.

Coorg and Berar.—The Merkara School in Coorg and the two schools of Akola and Amraoti in Berar are excellently housed, and well furnished in all respects with school furniture and scientific apparatus.

Summary.—From the foregoing statement it will be evident that aided schools are often insufficiently supplied with furniture and with the apparatus required for giving efficient instruction in the courses prescribed. We therefore recommend *that the grant-in-aid Code of each Province include provision for giving help to school managers in the renewal, and if necessary the increase of their furniture and apparatus of instruction after stated intervals.*

271. Registration of Attendance in secondary Schools—The keeping of correct registers of attendance is a matter of great importance, and all the evidence that we have received shows that sufficient precautions are taken to secure accurate and honest returns. It is true that wherever the system of payment by results is in force—a system which necessarily takes into account the attendance of pupils—there will be much greater temptation to fraud, and much greater need of precautions against it, than where the rate of aid is not directly determined by that consideration. But in every school, Government or aided, regularity in the attendance of pupils is rightly regarded as a test of good discipline and management, and of the influence which the teacher exercises over pupils and their parents. Without it no steady progress can be made; since the regular pupils are kept back to suit the pace of those who are allowed to stay away from school on any slight pretence. The head-master in a Government school is well aware that the estimate formed of him, and therefore his prospects of promotion, will be largely affected by the discipline which he is able to maintain in this respect. And even under those systems of aid in which the amount of the grant does not directly depend on the attendance, the managers know well that continued irregularity will produce in the Inspectors mind an impression which may tend to their disadvantage in the revision of the grant. Hence it is in all cases important to maintain such regulations on this point as will lessen the temptation to show the attendance of the school as better than it actually is. The precautions in force appear to be generally sufficient for this purpose. Registers of admission and of daily attendance are kept in all high and middle schools by the head and assistant masters, the head-master being responsible for their correctness. In aided schools they are also checked by the local managers; and they must at all times be open to the examination of the inspecting officer, who checks them by the returns he has separately received. One of the first duties of an inspecting officer on visiting a school is to scrutinise the registers of attendance. In Madras, the regulations under this head for result-grant schools are very strict; they have already been described in our Chapter on primary Education. But secondary schools are chiefly aided on the salary-grant system; and for them, as for Government schools, less stringent regulations are judged necessary. The registers in these latter schools are examined by the Inspectors at their annual and other visits. In Bombay, the register is called twice daily for each class. In Bengal an abstract of the attendance in every Government high school is sent to the Inspector quarterly; and in Government middle schools and in aided schools of every class a similar abstract accompanies the monthly bill presented to the Inspector. In the North-Western Provinces, detected falsification is severely punished. In the Central Provinces Report it is stated that falsification of the register is almost unknown in Government schools; and that as the system of payment by results has not been introduced into aided schools there is no temptation to fraud. In Assam, as in Bengal, monthly abstract registers are sent to the Inspector with the bills; and that

officer has no reason to suppose that in any case untrustworthy returns have been submitted from middle schools.

272. Training of Teachers for secondary Schools.—Provision for the training of teachers for schools of secondary instruction exists in very different degrees in different Provinces. In those Provinces in which purely vernacular schools form an important part of the secondary system, adequate provision is very generally made for the Normal instruction of teachers. But in regard to English secondary schools great diversities of practice are found,—diversities which correspond to equally striking differences of opinion. Such a conflict of views is by no means confined to this country. In Prance, the Normal schools aim at giving the pupil thorough instruction much more in the subjects which he is intended to teach, and in those allied subjects which will enable him to teach them with greater fulness, insight, and power, than in the methods of teaching them and the professional art of the teacher. In the Normal schools of Germany, on the other hand, the science of *Paidagogik* has reached a high degree of development. Mr. Matthew Arnold a few years ago expressed the opinion that if in some countries undue importance was attached to that science, yet there was no justification for treating it with the neglect which it commonly received in England where middle schools were concerned. An educational officer of large experience in England and India has expressed the belief that “ the best way to teach a man to teach arithmetic, “ is to teach him arithmetic; and if he knows arithmetic, and you want to additionally qualify him to teach arithmetic, the most efficient way of expenditure “ of your extra tuition upon him will be to teach him algebra, rather than “ to talk to him about teaching arithmetic.”⁵ It was in view of such diversities of opinion that we invited evidence on the question—“Does the University “ curriculum afford a sufficient training for teachers in secondary schools, or are “ special Normal schools needed for the purpose ? ” On the whole there is on the part of the witnesses (among whom may be specially named the Madras missionary witnesses, and the Honourable Mr. Justice West of Bombay), a preponderating body of opinion in favour either of giving teachers of secondary schools a definite Normal training, or at any rate of requiring them to possess some acquaintance with the principles and methods of teaching. The distinction here pointed out is one of considerable practical importance. The Normal school serves a two-fold purpose; it teaches subjects, and it teaches the best way of teaching them. The teaching of subjects can be sufficiently provided for in ordinary places of instruction, if their standard is high enough for it; what specially characterises a good Normal school is instruction in the science and practice in the art of teaching. On this point we may quote the evidence of Dr. Duncan, Principal of the Madras Presidency College: “When it is said, as it often is, that a young man who “ has sat under good professors for four years must have learned by force of “ example all that a Normal school can teach as to the methods of instruction “ and class management, it seems to be forgotten that there is, or ought to be, “ a wide difference in the methods adopted in a class of school-boys and those “ pursued with young men at college.” We have little doubt that a man who has been able to supplement a good general education, to a standard considerably higher than that to which his subsequent work as a teacher will be confined, by a short course of instruction in the principles and methods of his work, will be more effective as a teacher than one who is without that advantage. He will be more effective certainly at the outset; though there is no doubt that the untrained teacher who has enthusiasm in his work will in many cases acquire in the course of it, either by natural aptitude or by appropriate reading, an insight into the methods which lead to success

in teaching. And his improvement in this respect will be more rapid if he has the advantage of working under a skilled and experienced teacher. It is also true that some, perhaps most, of the secondary Normal schools in India have no practising school attached to them, in which the students may gain experimental acquaintance with their work. In this case the special instruction of the Normal school will be limited to the science or theory of teaching; and valuable as that is, it may still be acquired to some sufficient extent from books. It will be gathered that we set a high value on that part of Normal school instruction which consists in giving the pupils practical training for a short period with a class, so that they may perform, under the eye and guidance of the teacher, work of the kind which they will afterwards have to do independently. It is in this way chiefly that the future schoolmaster will learn how to engage and keep the attention of a whole class, how to correct and check the wandering or listless scholar, how to put together in their due order the materials of a lesson, and how to select those illustrations which give life to instruction and arouse the interest of the pupil. All this the trained schoolmaster can do, if he has added to natural capacity and enthusiasm a training of the right character. But if opportunities of this kind are wanting, as in many Normal schools they are wanting, we are of opinion that, without requiring every teacher in a secondary school to go through a course of Normal training, we may, as an inadequate but the only practicable alternative, require him to show that he possesses a sufficient acquaintance with the theory and methods of teaching, as developed in the many works which have been produced on that subject. In this way we can at least be sure that he does not enter upon the duties of his profession without any of the equipment necessary for their successful discharge, and that he will bring to his work a mind stored with the knowledge that will help him to appreciate and remove the difficulties by which he will at the outset be surrounded. Bearing these considerations in mind, we recommend *that an examination in the 'principles and practice of teaching be instituted, success in which should hereafter be a condition of permanent employment as a teacher in any secondary school* Government or aided.*

273. Arrangements for the Training of Teachers in secondary Schools—We proceed to describe such arrangements as are actually in force for training teachers in secondary schools.

Madras.—The only Normal school in the Madras Presidency for the training of teachers in secondary schools is the Government Normal School established in 1856. For many years this institution gave a general as well as a special education; but of late it was thought desirable to limit its work to the training of teachers, and none are now admitted as students but those who have passed some University examination. In 1881-82, the school contained 8 graduates, 3 students who had passed the First Arts, and 18 the Matriculation examination. The students of the school are either actual teachers, permanent or provisional, or candidates for teacherships. To the former class of students, the rate of stipend varies from Rs. 10 to Rs. 20 a month, to the latter from Rs. 5 to Rs. 14; the rate being fixed by reference to the University standing of the students, and to the educational division in which they are to serve. The number of stipendiary students is not to exceed 35, nor the total number 50. The period of training is 12 months, except in the case of Masters of Arts, or of teachers of three years' standing and 25 years of age, when the term may be reduced under special circumstances to six months. Every stipendiary student binds himself under penalties to remain under training during the prescribed period, and to continue for three years in any post to which he may be appointed after passing the final examination.

Bombay*—No special college exists for the training of teachers for secondary schools. The head-masters of high schools are generally graduates of the University; those of middle schools are either University men or officers who have distinguished themselves as teachers in lower appointments. The assistant masters of secondary schools are men who have been trained either in high schools or in colleges. Newly appointed teachers in departmental schools are generally required to serve for a year or more in one or other of the larger high schools, in order that they may learn their duties under the eye of the most experienced head-masters of the Presidency. It is therefore urged that the first grade high schools discharge the functions of training colleges; and as this plan is believed to have been successful as well as economical the Provincial Committee deprecate any change of system.

Bengal.—There is no special institution for training teachers in English schools. A Government high school of the first grade will ordinarily have either an old senior scholar of the pre-University period or a Master of Arts as head-master, and a Bachelor of Arts as second master, together with men of lower University standing in the subordinate appointments. In aided schools the Inspector requires, and mostly secures, the appointment of a Bachelor of Arts to the head-mastership of a high school, and of a First Arts student to that of a middle school. For the training of vernacular teachers there are eight Normal schools, the course in which is certainly not below that required for the First Arts examination of the Calcutta University. It comprises vernacular language and literature; Sanskrit; history of England and India, and general history; general and physical geography, with elementary descriptive astronomy; arithmetic, European and Indian, algebra to the binomial theorem, trigonometry to the solution of triangles, logarithms, statics and elementary dynamics; six books of Euclid, mensuration, surveying with the chain, plotting, and plan-drawing; elementary physics* chemistry, botany, and the laws of health; and lastly the art of teaching, with practice in the model school. Candidates are admitted after passing the middle scholarship examination, and the full course extends to three years. A central examination of the students of all Normal schools is held at the end of the first, second, and third year of study, and certificates of different grades are given to those who pass; but no student can ordinarily be appointed to the head-mastership of a middle vernacular school unless he has passed through the full course. Lower certificates qualify for assistant masterships in middle schools or for head-masterships of upper primary schools. The examination is not confined to students of Normal schools, but is open to any teacher who desires to qualify for a certificate. The value of the stipends in Normal schools is generally Rs. 4 or Rs. 5 a month, and an annual grant of nearly Rs. 25,000 is made for this purpose. The stipends are awarded by the Inspector to successful candidates from all the Districts which the Normal school is intended to provide for. The Normal school at Patna is the only one which has a class for the training of English teachers; all students in this class must have passed the middle scholarship examination in English. There were 466 students in the eight Normal schools in 1882; and 266 certificates of different grades were issued on the result of the central examination. A distinctive and valuable element in the Bengal system is that to each Normal school is attached a model or practising school of the middle vernacular standard, in which the pupils are constantly practised in the art of teaching under the head-master's eye. These model schools are found to be amongst the most successful of their class, as tested by the middle scholarship examination.

North-Western Provinces and Oudh—There is at the head-quarters of each Commissioner's Division a Normal school for the training of teachers in secondary as well as primary schools. The subjects prescribed for the higher certificate comprise vernacular language and literature, with optional instruction in Persian or Sanskrit, arithmetic, algebra to quadratic equations, four books of Euclid, mensuration of plane surfaces, surveying with the plane table, history and geography of India, general and physical geography and map-drawing, elements of natural science, and the principles of teaching. Every candidate for admission to a Normal school must have passed the middle school examination, and the course extends over two years.

Punjab—The Central Training College at Lahore, now in the third year of its existence, is designed to train teachers for English and for secondary vernacular schools. It is under the charge of a graduate of St. Andrew's, who has also passed through a Training College. The English class consists, or will hereafter consist, of young men who have passed the B. A. or the First Arts examination of the Calcutta University, or the corresponding examinations of the Punjab University, as well as of promising teachers in District schools. The vernacular class consists of men who have passed through a Normal school with certificates of competency, of students who have passed the vernacular Entrance examination of the Punjab University, and of teachers sent in from schools. Notwithstanding their varied attainments, all these students are taught as one class; the object of the Training College being, not to impart general instruction, but to train for the special work of teaching men otherwise educated. Accordingly, with the exception of elementary science, instruction is confined to the principles of teaching. The number of students in each class is about 30. The chief defect mentioned is the want of a practising school. The aided Normal school of the Christian Vernacular Education Society at Amritsar does not train teachers specially for secondary schools; but the course is sufficiently advanced to qualify the best students for posts in middle schools. A practising school is attached.

Central Provinces—There is no institution for training teachers; but the masters in middle schools are usually matriculated students at the least, while some have advanced to a higher status in the University. Consequently, it is pointed out, they have spent some 10 or 12 years at school and college; they have observed the methods pursued, and adopt them.

Assam—The single Normal school at Gauhati for the training of secondary teachers is framed on the Bengal model. The students are drawn from all districts except Sylhet and Cachar, whose requirements are supplied by the Normal school at Dacca in Bengal. A practising school is attached. During the last four years 36 students have gained certificates of competency.

Summary—From what has preceded, it appears that in Madras there is a training school for English teachers in secondary schools; in Bengal, Assam, and the North-Western Provinces, schools for vernacular teachers; and in the Punjab for teachers of both classes. In the other Provinces no special provision is made. The only further Recommendation that we have to make under this head is based on the principle, in force in Madras, of allowing M.A. graduates in special cases to read for a shorter term than other students of Normal schools, and it involves an extension of that principle. It is, *that graduates wishing to attend a course of instruction in a Normal school in the principles and practice of teaching be required to undergo a shorter course of training than others.*

274. The total Number of Teachers, trained and untrained, in secondary Schools.—From the account given in the preceding paragraph, it will be evident that a large number of teachers of secondary schools in every Province have received no definite Normal training; either because the existing Normal schools have not as yet had time to supply all the requirements of secondary schools, or because a University or high school training is thought to be sufficient. The following figures relating to the different Provinces will illustrate this statement. In Madras, the number of trained masters (excluding vernacular teachers) for secondary schools who have left the Normal school is 527. Some of these have betaken themselves to other callings; some have been appointed Deputy Inspectors; and the number actually employed in secondary schools is comparatively small. Out of 455 teachers employed in Government schools, 222 are trained. In aided English schools there are about 840 teachers, of whom 130 are trained. In secondary schools of other kinds most of the teachers have received no special training. In Bombay, out of 193 teachers in Government high schools, there are 60 graduates, and 95 have passed either the matriculation or the previous examination. Of 255 teachers in Government middle schools, 2 are graduates, 14 have passed the previous, and 144 the matriculation, examination. In aided schools the upper masters are generally men who have passed some University examination; and it is stated that a large proportion of those who have had no University training are teachers of long standing and experience. In Bengal it will be remembered that high and middle schools contain attached primary departments; and hence the masters in those schools include some who instruct little boys in the alphabet, and others, trained in pathshalas, who teach native methods of arithmetic, a subject which finds a place in middle schools. Sanskrit is taught in high schools either by Normal school students, or by those who have received their instruction in tols. With this explanation the following figures will be understood. Of 1,319 teachers 79 have received a collegiate education, 491 have read in high schools, 97 in vernacular Normal schools; and 1,467 have received a Normal school training; while 323 have been educated in colleges, 817 in high schools, 1,255 in middle schools, and 225 in indigenous institutions. In the North-Western Provinces, of 662 teachers in secondary schools, chiefly vernacular, some 70 per cent, are certificated. In the Punjab, many of the teachers have passed the lower University examinations, while 7 have the degree of B.A. or the equivalent degree of the Punjab University, The Lahore Training College supplied 12 teachers to schools at the end of the first year of its existence. Most of the teachers of middle vernacular schools, as well as several oriental teachers in English schools, hold Normal school certificates. In the Central Provinces, middle schoolmasters are usually matriculated, while some have passed the First Arts examination, and two or three are graduates. In Assam, of 84 teachers in high schools, 64 have passed at or read up to one or other of the University examinations, and there are 12 trained and 8 untrained oriental teachers. Of 199 teachers in middle schools, 152 are trained and 47 untrained. There are no trained teachers in the other two Provinces.

275. Pay and Prospects of Teachers in secondary Schools—No general complaint is made that the teachers in secondary schools are under-paid. This is a case indeed in which the ordinary laws of supply and demand have full operation. If the salaries offered are not sufficient to attract competent men, competent men will not take the appointments. Here and there, it is true, a man

may be found who, feeling in himself a special calling for the teacher's work will serve for a wage below the market rate. But this impulse, though it may be stronger in the educational than in other fields of professional life, is not one which has any large results or which need be regarded. The executive service, as will hereafter be shown in the Chapter on Collegiate Education, possesses powerful attractions for graduates ; but failing that, they are quite willing to take service in Government or in aided schools. The competition is of course keen, but there is certainly no evidence to show that throughout India the supply of educated men is in excess of the demand; and there is indeed ground for believing that the salaries which B.A. and M.A. graduates will accept have in some Provinces been steadily rising in recent years. One considerable element in the value of a post consists in the prospect of future promotion or of transfer to a better-paid service which it holds out. The first of these depends, as regards Government schools, upon the internal organisation of the Department, and the arrangements in force for securing due recognition to long service and proved capacity; and in this respect there are great differences in different Provinces. The second is determined by the estimate in which educational officers are held by the dispensers of patronage in other branches of the Government service, or by other employers of highly remunerated labour ; and in this respect, also, wide differences are found to exist. In Bengal the Director of Public Instruction is sometimes asked to recommend men for Deputy Magistracies or other special posts in the executive service of Government; for appointment as tutors or guardians under the Court of Wards ; for service in the Jail, Police, Registration, or other Departments. This tendency has been decreasing of late years, because the dispensers of patronage have found it easier than before to make their own selection from candidates independently qualified. Nevertheless, in those Provinces in which special encouragement has been given to men of education, the belief still prevails that service in the Education Department will open a door, however narrow, to other and more remunerative careers; and this fact has its weight with candidates for employment, and puts a somewhat better class of men at the disposal of the Department for service in schools. In other Provinces there has been little if any recognition of educational officers as having any special claim to, or qualification for, public employment; there is no current belief that approved service under the Director's eye will lead to selection for a better post outside the Department; and in applying for educational appointments, men look simply to the market value of their services. These remarks apply with chief force to Government schools. The prospects of teachers in aided schools are determined partly by the liberality of the grant-in-aid rules, and by the degree in which recognition is given to the just principle that, in aided as in Government schools, provision should be made for a progressive increase of salaries ; and partly by the readiness of those in authority to reward successful teachers of aided schools by appointments of higher value under Government. We proceed to show how the services of teachers in secondary schools are remunerated in different Provinces. Two facts may, however, be borne in mind. The first is that men will accept appointments at their own homes, or in the Presidency towns where they have (as they believe) greater opportunities of promotion, at lower rates than in distant parts of the country. The second is that distinguished graduates will often accept appointments at low rates in places where they have an opportunity of attending Law Lectures, so as to secure the means of subsistence while qualifying for the legal profession. This is not altogether desirable, since their intention is to abandon the work of education just when they are beginning to be efficient; at the same time, so great is the

competition at the Bar, that many men once appointed are reluctant afterwards to exchange a certainty for a bare and doubtful chance of success; and in this way, if they see any reasonable prospect of promotion, the Department secures the services of many competent officers who would not otherwise have joined it.

In Madras, the grant-in-aid rules are framed on the assumption that the salaries of masters in high schools vary from Rs. 80 to Rs. 240 a month, and in middle schools from Rs. 30 to Rs. 50 a month; but as a matter of fact the salaries are determined by the market rate,³ and are much lower than those contemplated in the rules. In schools under private managers, except in the case of a head-master, the salary seldom exceeds Rs. 100 a month in a high school, and Rs. 40 in a middle. In departmental schools the rates are higher. Masters in aided schools who prove their efficiency have also a prospect of appointment as Deputy Inspectors, and even to higher posts in the graded service. In Bombay, teachers in Government secondary schools are eligible for promotion to most of the higher appointments in the Department. They have not infrequently been selected for posts in other departments of the public service. In Government high schools, the salaries of head-masters vary from Rs. 125 to Rs. 800, the maximum being that of the head-master of the Elphinstone High School; assistant masters receive from Rs. 30 to Rs. 150. In middle schools the salary varies from Rs. 15 to Rs. 150. In aided high schools the salary of the head-master varies from Rs. 100 to a maximum of Rs. 600 in the case of one European head-master of a mission school; the maximum salary of an assistant master is Rs. 125. In aided middle schools the salaries range from Rs. 60 to Rs. 125. In Bengal, the officers of the Department below the European professoriate and the circle Inspectors are ranged in a subordinate graded service consisting of seven classes, the salaries in which range from Rs. 50 to Rs. 500 a month. All teachers in Government secondary schools with salaries of Rs. 50 and upwards are included in this list and are eligible for promotion, according to qualifications and service, to the highest class. Out of a total number of 327 officers contained in the list, 136 are teachers in high schools. The head-masters of the Hindu and Hare Schools in Calcutta are in the first class of this service, with salaries rising from Rs. 400 to Rs. 500 a month. In aided high schools the pay ranges from Rs. 15 to Rs. 150 a month; in middle schools from Rs. 10 to Rs. 50. The rates include those paid in the primary departments. Successful aided schools are regularly noticed in the Annual Reports of the Department; and their teachers are frequently rewarded by appointment to Government schools. Promotion to other departments of the public service is occasionally but rarely given to teachers in high schools. In the North-Western Provinces, the pay of teachers in Government middle schools ranges from Rs. 8 to Rs. 20 a month; for high schools, and for aided schools generally, no information is given in the Provincial Report. In the Punjab the salaries in district schools range from Rs. 30 to Rs. 400 a month, and in Government middle vernacular schools from Rs. 8 to Rs. 40 a month. In the Central Provinces, many civil appointments have been given for some years past to masters of middle schools and consequently competent men are obtained as teachers. In Assam, where the secondary schools contain primary departments, the salaries in Government high schools range from Rs. 15 to Rs. 200, and in middle vernacular schools from Rs. 10 to Rs. 40. Teachers sometimes, though rarely, obtain more valuable appointments in other departments. The salaries in high and middle schools lie in Coorg between Rs. 30 and Rs. 100, and in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts between Rs. 5⁰ and Rs. 400.

276. Means of improving the Position of Teachers in secondary

Schools.—The remarks made at the beginning of the preceding paragraph lead up to the only Recommendation that we have to make under this head, namely, *that the claims of efficient and successful teachers in aided schools be considered in making appointments to posts in the service of Government; and that in cases duly certified by the Education Department the 25 years' rule be relaxed.* We say nothing in this place as to the desirability of rewarding successful teachers by appointments in other departments of the public service; though we have good ground for believing that the effect of such a practice, in those Provinces where it prevails or did prevail in past years, has been to raise the character of secondary education by securing the services of more ambitious and capable men. But a policy of that kind must be almost exclusively governed by regard to the qualifications of individual officers, and to their fitness for special appointments. With the course recommended above it is different. Teachers, whether in Government or in aided schools, are doing precisely the same work; and a man who has proved his capacity in one post is necessarily fit for duties of a similar kind in another. Having regard to the immense advantage of raising the standard of instruction in aided schools, we are of opinion that this object can best be attained, with equal benefit to both classes of schools, by rewarding successful teachers in aided schools by appointments in the Government service. It may not be possible to devise any general means of raising the pay of teachers in aided schools; although something to this end may be effected by a generous recognition of the principle that in applying the grant-in-aid rules the claims of old and successful teachers to increased pay should not be disregarded. But their prospects can at any rate be improved by giving them the hope of transfer to an appointment involving greater certainty of employment, with prospective advantages in the way of promotion and pension. There can be little doubt that, if such a policy were declared and followed, a still better class of men than those who now come forward would seek appointments in aided schools. Such a policy, too, would be in full accordance with the object which we have kept in view in all our Recommendations, that departmental and aided schools should in an equal degree claim and enjoy the fostering care of the Department, as portions of a connected system of national education.

The second part of our Recommendation is based on a practice which has been followed for some years with success in Bengal. In that Province it has long been the custom to select efficient teachers in aided schools for appointment either to Government schools or as inspecting officers. The men selected had proved their fitness by successful work for many years; and hence it happened in nearly every instance that they had passed beyond the limit of age prescribed for entrance into the service of Government. Much inconvenience was felt from the necessity of applying to Government in each case for sanction to the particular appointment,—an application required by existing orders. In 1878, therefore, at the instance of the Director of Public Instruction, the Government of Bengal sanctioned the relaxation of that rule in the case of teachers of aided schools; provided that the person appointed was certified by the appointing officer as being in his opinion the most efficient man for the post; that a list of all appointments so made should be forwarded each year to Government; and that the pension admissible on retirement to any such officer should be liable to reduction in proportion to the degree in which the period of his service under Government fell short of 30 years.

277. Fees in secondary Schools.—The following Table shows the per-

centage of fee income to total expenditure in high and middle schools of all classes in 1881-82 ;—

Fees in High and Middle Schools in 1881-82.

PROVINCE AND; GRADE OF SCHOOLS.	Percentage of income from fees to total expenditure in Departmental schools.	Percentage of income from fees to total expenditure in Aided schools.	Percentage of income from fees to total expenditure in Unaided schools under inspection.	BEMABES.	
MADRAS	HIGH SCHOOLS {Boys . English Girls . English MIDDLE SCHOOLS {English Boys (Vernacular Girls r English (Vernacular	37'03 22*76 48-65 39*19	37*76 92*31* 57*83 39*35 5*67 8*34	6'95 63*43 68'18 13*73 1*97	* One school only. The total expenditure was Rs. 13, of which Rs. 12 were met from Fees.
BOMBAY	HIGH SCHOOLS . Boys . English MIDDLE SCHOOLS < (Boys . English CGirls . English	44*69 44*79	24*17 33*41 24*63	14'33 1497	
BENGAL	HIGH SCHOOLS {Boys . English Girls . English MIDDLE SCHOOLS {Boys * (Vernacular Girls /English ^ . Vernacular	57*81 32*52 32*18 27-96	44*23 24*73 15*31 2*70	48*55 36'09 18*78 0*79	
U.-W. PROVINCES AND OJJDH.	(HIGH AND MIDDLE SCHOOLS. .Girls {English (Vernacular /English (Vernacular	7*73 4*17	3*94 13*51 6*6 2	4*72	
PUNJAB	HIGH SCHOOLS Boys . English Boys . Vernacular . MIDDLE SCHOOLS Boys (English (Vernacular . Girls . English	8*27 9*45 12*20 7*10 M.	4*84 ... 8'24 14*89		
CENTRAL PROVINCES.	High Schools . Boys . English Middle Schools . Boys . English	11*36 8*78	9*13 14*17		
ASSAM.	HIGH SCHOOLS . Boys - English MIDDLE SCHOOLS BOYS (English (Vernacular	50*13 38*16 30*48	46*90 24*74 23*31	8*39 26*94 6*37	
COORG .	HIGH SCHOOLS . Boys . English MIDDLE SCHOOLS Boys . English	13*37			
WATTAHA BAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS	(HIGH SCHOOLS . Boys . English ^ . English	1*20 791			
INDIA	HIGH SCHOOLS {Boys (Girls MIDDLE SCHOOLS {Boys Girls	40*65 29'52 35*57 3*33	3**41 6*96 32*29 15*77	0*52 35*73 7*36	
	TOTAL	33'88	31*44	37*99	

Excluding Ajmir, British Burma* and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

In high schools for boys, the proportion of the expenditure borne by fees is nearly 41 per cent, in Government and unaided schools, and about 31 per cent, in aided schools. The proportion for Government schools is highest in Bengal and Assam where it reaches 58 and 50 per cent, respectively ; for aided schools it is highest in the same two Provinces, being 47 per cent, in Assam, and 44 per cent, in Bengal; and for unaided schools it is highest in Assam and Madras, with 81 and 66 per cent. It will be noticed how high is the place taken by Assam in this comparison. In middle schools of all classes Madras is easily pre-eminent. In the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab, and the Central Provinces, the proportion raised from fees is conspicuously low in schools of every class. It might be thought instructive to show for every Province of India the average fee paid by each scholar in high and middle schools. Such a comparison would, however, be misleading on account of the varying number of classes which high schools contain in different Provinces, and of the amalgamation of the figures for high and middle schools in the returns of others. In all Provinces the fee-receipts of Government schools are paid into the Treasury and credited in the public accounts. In the case of middle schools in places distant from any Treasury, the head-master is allowed in some Provinces to use the fees in part-payment of his salary; the amount is, however, shown in his monthly bill, and is credited in the accounts of the Treasury. In aided schools the fees belong to the institution. We proceed to notice some points of special interest in the different Provinces.

Madras.—A definite scale of fees was fixed in 1869 and increased in 1877, in communication with the managers of aided schools, according to which the rates varied for different parts of the country, and were higher for Government than for aided schools. The schedule provides for schools in the town of Madras, and in mofussil towns of the first, second, and third grades. For high schools the highest fee is Rs. 3-8 in Government and Rs. 2-8 in aided schools ; the lowest fee is Rs. 2 in Government and Re. 1 -8 in aided schools. For middle schools the fee varies from Rs. 2-8 to 12 annas in Government, and from Rs. 1-12 to 8 annas in aided schools. In Government and salary-grant schools 5 per cent, of the whole number of pupils may be free students. Muhammadan and TJriya pupils pay half the ordinary rates. The Provincial Committee is of opinion that the rates might now be revised with advantage; though no great increase could be made without hardship to students and injury to education.

Bombay.—The fee-rates vary for different parts of the Province; thus the highest fee in Government high schools is Rs. 4 in the Central Division, and Rs. 2 elsewhere; the lowest fee is Re. 1-8 in the Central and Southern Divisions and Re. 1 elsewhere. In Government middle schools the rates vary from Rs. 3 to 4 annas. No minimum rate of fee has been prescribed for schools under private management as a condition of receiving aid. In all Government schools 5 per cent, of the pupils may be free students, or 10 per cent, may read at half rates; in the middle departments attached to cess schools, 20 per cent, of the pupils may be free. In aided schools the exemptions are very numerous, and there is no restriction in the rules on this point. No scholarship-holder is exempted from fee-payments unless he also holds a free-studentship. There are no special rates or exemptions for Muhammadan students, and very few of that class are found in Government high and middle schools.

Bengal.—The ordinary rate of fee in a Government high school is Rs. 3 a month in the highest class, descending to 12 annas or Re. 1 in the lowest

class of the primary department. But fees also vary with the locality, so that as in other parts of India, secondary education may be obtained at a cheaper rate in backward parts of the Province. Thus, in the Hindu and Hare Schools of Calcutta, the fee charged is Rs. 5 in the five highest classes, and Rs. 4 in the four lowest; while in remote and backward parts, the fee in the highest class falls to Rs. 2, and in the lowest class to 8 annas or even less. There is, however, no fixed scale prescribed by the Department, and the rates are frequently revised by the District Committees, with the sanction of the Director, almost always in the direction of raising the total fee-income of the school. The average fee paid by students in all Government high schools is Rs. 2-6 in the highest class, and 15 annas in the lowest. In aided schools the fees levied are at less than half these rates. The rate of fees in middle English schools (practically all of which are aided) varies from 4 annas to Re. 1 a month according to class, and in middle vernacular schools from 2 annas to 8 annas a month. There is no rule prescribing certain rates of fees as a condition of obtaining a grant-in-aid. Indeed in 1875 it was decided, after correspondence with the Supreme Government, that the distinction between fee-receipts and subscriptions was of no practical utility, and that if a certain proportion of fee-payments was insisted on, the chief result would be that sums now shown as subscriptions would be returned as fees. Consequently the only stipulation now is that a certain amount of private income from all sources, fees and subscriptions together, shall be guaranteed. No pupils are exempt from the payment of fees except those who hold Government scholarships. Students who hold middle scholarships are also entitled, subject to the condition of satisfactory conduct and progress, to read free for one or two years after the expiry of their scholarships, if they have not by that time passed the matriculation examination. Aided and unaided schools generally allow the same privileges to scholars, though there is no regulation on this point. In aided schools, the managers frequently pay the fees of poor scholars, the amount being shown as subscriptions. In unaided schools there is always a large number of free students, from the *Wazir Khan* /*Wazir Khan*/Mohsin Endowment Fund a sum of Rs. 18,000 a year is set apart for paying the fees of Muhammadan students in high schools. The concession is confined to students of Government high schools at the present time of those districts in which Muhammadans are most numerous; but in Chapter VIII of this Report we shall recommend that the benefits of the allotment be extended to aided schools of approved status.

North-Western Provinces and Oudh.—Here we at once descend to a much lower scale of fees. In Government high schools the rate varies according to locality, from 8 annas to Re. 1-8 in the highest classes, and from 4 annas to 12 annas in the lowest (or primary department) classes. In middle schools the rate varies from 3 to 12 annas in English, and from 1 to 4 annas in vernacular schools. The fees levied in aided schools vary widely. No minimum fee is prescribed, nor is there any limit to the percentage of free scholars; but a certain sum must be realised from fees, in proportion to the amount of the grant. Notwithstanding the desire that exists for a knowledge of English, the proportion of the total income raised from fees is greater in the case of vernacular than of English schools. The Provincial Report does not state what exemptions are made in the incidence of the fee-rates; nor whether fees are levied from scholarship-holders in aided, as they are in Government schools,

Punjab.—In the Punjab, an attempt is made to regulate the fee-rate in Government schools by the income of the parents. In English schools scholars are divided into six grades, according to income; the lowest grade is for incomes below Rs. 25 a month, and the highest for incomes above

Rs. 200. In aided schools there is no uniform scale. The returns, however, show that the average fee paid by scholars in high schools is within a fraction the same as that paid in middle English schools. No exemptions are allowed, and all scholarship-holders pay the regular fees. On the question of graduating the fees according to income, a large majority of the witnesses are in favour of that principle, and think it should be maintained. Others are of opinion that the difficulty of accurately ascertaining incomes renders the system unworkable, and exposes the head-master to the imputation of being unfairly lenient to some pupils and hard to others.

Central Provinces.—In the Government high school the fee-rate is Re. 1 a month. Owing to the growing efficiency of the middle school, the applications for admissions to the high school at Jabalpur are increasing year by year, and it may be possible to raise the fee. In aided schools the highest fee varies from 12 annas to Rs. 3 a month, an attempt being generally made to regulate the fee by the income of the parents. Accordingly the fee is sometimes as low as 2 annas. In Government middle schools, inferior and superior, the rate is 6 annas and 8 annas a month, except to agriculturists who, as contributors to the school cess, pay only half those rates. It appears possible to raise the fee in the superior middle schools of large towns. In aided middle schools the fee varies from 1 to 8 annas. In the Government high school there are no exemptions, except in very rare cases under special sanction of the Inspector General. In middle schools, five pupils at each may read free. Scholarship-holders in all schools pay fees.

Assam.—The fee-rates in Government high schools in Assam are much the same as in Bengal, varying from Re. 1-8 to Rs. 3 in the highest classes. In aided schools the highest fee is 25 per cent, lower, but the general incidence of fees on each scholar is somewhat higher in aided than in Government schools, owing to the fact that the former have only as yet been established in comparatively populous and wealthy centres. All scholarship-holders are allowed to read free, as in Bengal, and the privilege is continued to them for two years after the expiry of their scholarships, so as to enable them to pass the Entrance examination.

Other Provinces.—In Coorg there are no aided secondary schools. The fee rate in the Government school is one rupee a month. No exemptions are allowed. In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts the rate is from 12 annas to Re. 1 in the high school and from 4 to 8 annas in the middle school. Scholarship-holders pay no fees.

278. Recommendations as to Fees.—All our Recommendations under this head have for their object to improve and strengthen the position of aided schools. The first runs as follows: *that the Director of Public Instruction should, in consultation with the Managers of schools receiving aid from Government, determine the scale of fees to be charged and the proportion of pupils to be exempted from payment therein.* On this point it was contended by the majority that one of the chief objects of the Despatch of 1854 in insisting on the levy of “some fee, however small,” from scholars, was to stimulate and strengthen the principle of self-help; and thus, by the gradual increase of fees in every class of institutions, to make education as far as possible self-supporting. It was therefore, in the opinion of the majority, desirable to adopt some definite system by which, with due regard to the circumstances of each locality or tract of country, the scale of fees to be charged as a condition of receiving aid might be determined authoritatively, and yet with

sufficient elasticity, for schools of every class. One great advantage resulting from such a system would be that of strengthening the hands of managers of aided schools in their endeavours to increase the private income of those institutions. It was true that managers constantly allow poor-boys to read free increasing their subscriptions so as to make good the loss of fees. There was* no objection whatever to such a practice; but it was desirable that (subject to any sanctioned exemptions) a fee should be shown for every scholar and there would be no difficulty in bringing into the accounts, by transfer to the head of fees, sums that were really intended to be so applied. In this way a salutary principle would be maintained. Another advantage would be the protection of aided schools against injurious competition with each other. In the absence of such a provision there was great danger, as experience showed, that schools near enough to be in competition would go on reducing their rates in order to attract each other's pupils. To reject the proposal would be to take a long stride towards destroying discipline, and would encourage parents to plead poverty in order to escape the payments of fees. Lastly, the experience of Madras, in which such a system had been in force for 13 years with the universal approval of the managers of aided schools, was altogether in favour of its extension to other Provinces. Aided schools would not regard the action of the Department in this matter as an interference, but as a help. There was no ground for the suspicion that the Department would use the power thus placed at its disposal so as to cripple aided schools by requiring them to levy extravagant fees. The educational policy of the future must be based on the explicit assumption that the Department would, on the one hand, regard all classes of schools with a favourable eye, and on the other be looked up to by aided schools with respect and confidence. Some of the arguments here adduced were directed against positions taken up by those who opposed the Recommendation, and whose views will now be stated. The Recommendation was opposed on a variety of grounds. It was urged, in the first place, that it involved an unnecessary and unprecedented interference with the freedom of aided schools. The managers were the persons best able to determine how far their schools could be made self-supporting; nor did the Recommendation make any provision for cases in which the managers and the Department might differ. Further—and this was a point on which great stress was laid by several native members of the Commission—the proposal aimed at breaking down the traditional rule, common to Hindus and Muhammadans, that education should be imparted without payment, the teachers depending on free-will offerings. There was no sort of foundation for the theory that gratuitous education involved any loss of self-respect; and testimony to this effect might be adduced from the West no less than from the East. If schools were subjected to the interference proposed, there was reason to fear that many would W l i n A aid altogether. Lastly, it was argued, the whole difficulty arose from the disturbing* presence of Government schools; and if that injurious influence were removed, the price of education would find its level like that of any other marketable commodity. In that point of view the proposal was objectionable, because it countenanced the continued existence of Government schools. Such were in brief the conflicting views; and the Recommendation was carried by only a narrow majority.

Our second Recommendation is *that in order to encourage the establishment of aided schools, the managers be not required to charge fees as high as those of a neighbouring Government school of the same class.* This is the necessary complement of the first Recommendation. Subject to a few exceptions, it is in accordance with the practice of the Department in every Province, and is designed to give aided schools a fair chance of attaining stability.

If effect is to be given to the principle of gradually substituting aided schools for Government schools in all places in which the conditions for such transfer of management are favourable, it is essential that every reasonable advantage should be offered to aided schools in their attempts to establish themselves on a permanent footing. The Government school will, it is believed, always possess attractions of its own, sufficient to counterbalance the drawback of charging higher fees. The further bearings of this question may, however, be reserved for discussion in a later Chapter.

Our third Recommendation is *that scholarship-holders, as such, be not exempted from payment of the ordinary fees*. It has been shown that in some Provinces they are so exempted. The effect obviously is that if aided schools are to admit scholarship-holders, who are the best and most promising of the students, they are compelled to admit them on similar terms, and thus to lose the fees which the scholars would otherwise pay. The loss to the scholars might, if necessary, be made up by increasing the value of the scholarships to an equivalent extent. In Government schools, the fees paid back by the scholars would make good the excess; and the only difference to Government in a financial point of view is that the scholarship assignment would be increased by the trifling amount of the fees paid by pupils holding their scholarships in non-departmental schools. But it would be easy so to fix the value of the scholarships that even this small loss could be avoided. At the same time it must be admitted that in one respect the payments of fees by scholarship-holders is apt to lead to misapprehension. When the amount paid in scholarships is large and the fee-rates low, as is the case in the Punjab, a considerable proportion of the fees consists merely of deductions from scholarships, and a false idea is thus conveyed as to the income and expenditure under both heads.

279. Scholarships in secondary Schools.—In many passages of the Despatch of 1854, the necessity and advantage of establishing a chain of scholarships “as a connecting link between the different grades of institutions” (paragraph 63) is insisted on. Of indigenous schools it is said (paragraph 46) that “the most promising pupils of these schools might be rewarded by scholarships [tenable] in places of education of a superior order.” Of the secondary schools it is said (paragraph 42) that “their pupils might be encouraged by scholarships being instituted at other institutions which would be tenable as rewards of merit by the best of their number;” and again (paragraph 38) that “scholarships should be attached to” the colleges affiliated to the University, “to be held by the best students of lower schools.” Again, in reference to aided schools it is said (paragraph 55) that “the foundation, or assistance in the foundation, of scholarships for candidates from lower schools will also be a proper object for the application of grants-in-aid/5 And in summing up the scope and objects of the scholarship system, the Despatch urges (paragraph 63) the development of the system in such a way “that the best pupils of the inferior schools shall be provided for by means of scholarships in schools of a higher order, so that superior talent in every class may receive that encouragement and development which it deserves/* The amount of the scholarships was to be “fixed at such a sum as may be considered sufficient for the maintenance of their holders at the colleges or schools to which they are attached, and which may often be at a distance from the homes of the students/’ The scholarship system was therefore one to which the Court of Directors attached the highest value, but they add (paragraph 63) the important injunction:—“We think it desirable that the system of scholarships should be carried out^{Et} not only in connexion with those places of education which are under the im-

mediate superintendence of the State, but in all educational institutions “which, will now be brought into our general system.”

220, Scholarship Systems in different Provinces.—It thus appears that it was intended, first, to establish a continuous chain of scholarships, connecting the lowest class of institutions with the highest; and secondly, to throw open scholarships on equal terms to pupils of all schools, whether Government or other. Free competition for scholarships has been found to be one of the most effectual means of encouraging and stimulating private effort in education. Further, in any general system of scholarships, it is plain that they should be more liberally bestowed in those Provinces where education is least advanced and where secondary schools are least numerous, so that pupils of ability in elementary schools may have the opportunity of carrying on their education in schools of a higher class. Without such a provision, the most capable students of backward Districts would be unable to prosecute their studies with such success as to fit them for the higher professions and the public service, which as a necessary consequence would then be filled by strangers from a distance. From the subjoined review it will be seen that in only four Provinces have the provisions of the Despatch been carried out with anything like completeness. These are Bengal, Assam, the Central Provinces, and Berar.

Madras.—In Madras the scholarship scheme contemplated in the Despatch has not been brought into effect. In each District in Madras where there is a high school but no college, there is one scholarship of Rs. 10 a month for a matriculated student, to enable him to proceed to a college to read for the First Arts examination. There are also six special Muhammadan scholarships. Except in Ganjam, there are no Government scholarships that may be held by pupils passing from a middle to a high school, nor are there any scholarships tenable at middle schools for boys in primary schools. Free students to the extent of five per cent, of the numbers enrolled at any secondary school are allowed, but the mere exemption from fee payments can hardly be said to be a scholarship in the sense of the Despatch of 1854. The actual expenditure in 1881-82 on scholarships in schools for general education was only Rs. 544, of which Rs. 301 were from Provincial revenues. It is evident that, as remarked by the Director of Public Instruction of Madras, the whole question of scholarships needs careful revision, in order that pupils in outlying primary schools, Government and private, may be enabled to pursue their studies in middle schools, and pupils of middle schools in high schools.

Bombay—Li Bombay there are 12 scholarships tenable by primary school boys in Government middle schools, and 21 tenable by farmers' sons in the agricultural classes of high schools. There are also 235 scholarships awarded and tenable in Government high schools, and 60 similarly attached to Government middle schools of the 1st grade. These ordinary scholarships of high and middle schools are intended not so much to connect middle schools with high schools and high schools with colleges, as to offer incentives to exertion to the students of the school in which the scholarships are given and held. They however serve to attract scholars from distant places to the Government schools. There are 12 University or junior college scholarships given to the best of the matriculated students. These scholarships may be held at any college affiliated to the Bombay University, and are tenable by matriculated students of aided as well as of Government high schools. There are also 5 scholarships open for competition to pupils of three years' standing in any Government or aided school in Sind, and tenable for four years in any college

affiliated to the Bombay University. Aided schools are left to provide scholarships for themselves. Any scholarships that aided school managers may give they pay for from, their own funds. To scholars studying* in aided high and middle schools no Government scholarships are open, except the twelve University scholarships and the eight bind scholarships.

From the system described it is clear that the policy of the Despatch of 1854 has not been carried out. Primary schools are not fully and completely linked to middle schools by means of scholarships, nor middle schools to high schools. The chain of scholarships is confined to Government schools. Thus the clever but poor boy who resides in a town or village remote from the site of a Government middle or high school must obtain admission to a Government school before he can hope by means of the scholarship system to climb from a primary school to a college. The Bombay Government maintain, however, that the intention of the Despatch is practically met by their system of free studentships, and still more by the high development of their primary schools. They urge that the great mass of poor students in primary schools, who in Bengal require scholarships to enable them to proceed to a secondary school, do so in order to reach that standard of education which qualifies for the lower grades of the public service. In Bombay the bifurcation of the course in primary schools enables the village schoolboy to enter the public service without leaving the village school. The provision of free studentships in primary schools is very liberal, and a further small provision of them in secondary schools, coupled with the few existing scholarships, enables at any rate the most promising of the poor scholars who aim higher than the second class certificate of the public service, to proceed to a secondary school. There is much force in these arguments. But useful as a system of free studentships undoubtedly is, they do not provide the special assistance by which the Despatch of 1854 proposed to enable not only poor but clever scholars to advance to the highest kind of education by means of a system of **scholarships** of substantial value. Neither does it meet the requirement of the Despatch that the pupils of schools under private managers should derive full advantage from the scholarship system.

Bengal .—In Bengal the secondary scholarship system connects upper primary with middle schools, middle schools with high schools, and high schools with colleges. All scholarships are awarded according to the results of public examinations, are open to scholars of all schools, and are tenable in colleges and secondary schools, whether departmental, aided, or unaided. Relatively to the number of schools and scholars, they are more liberally given in backward than in advanced Districts. The provisions of the Despatch have been very fully carried out in Bengal, where the Department has all along maintained that no portion of the Government assignment for education is more usefully spent

The scholarships awarded in 1881-82 may be thus shown for schools above the lower primary standard:—

CLASS OF SCHOLARSHIPS.	Where tenable.	Period.	Monthly value.	Number awarded.	Government scholarship assignment.
		Years.			Rs.
Upper Primary »	Middle Schools .	2		217	15,000
Middle Vernacular	High Schools	4		221	54,000
♦ English.....	Ditto	3		122	
Junior	Colleges	2		155	45,600

Nine thousand rupees are also spent annually from the Mohsin Endowment Fund on scholarships for Muhammadans, of which amount Rs. 1,872 is the cost of scholarships tenable in high schools, and Es. 1,632 the cost of 8 junior scholarships tenable in colleges. There are several scholarships, endowed from private funds, among which may be mentioned the Vizianagram scholarships offered to boys in middle schools for proficiency in surveying. The examinations for upper primary and middle scholarships are conducted for each circle by the Inspector, who selects as examiners inspecting officers of the Department, and teachers of Government and other schools. The total fee-receipts from candidates amount to about Rs. 5,000, which is supplemented by a grant of Rs. 1,000 from Government, and this amount is divided among the examiners, at the rate of about Rs. 100 to each. The junior scholarships are awarded to pupils of high schools according to the place which they take in the University matriculation examination, a certain number being allotted beforehand to each Division and District.

The North-Western Provinces and Oudh.—Forty scholarships, each of the value of Rs. 3 a month, are given annually on the results of the middle class vernacular examination to scholars of Government vernacular or tahsili g schools. They are tenable for four years in English schools. Forty scholarships, each of the value of Rs. 4, are given to those boys who stand highest in the middle school Anglo-vernacular examination, and are tenable for two years in high schools. Scholarships are given to those scholars of high schools who stand best at the matriculation examination of the Calcutta University, provided they pass in the first division. The scholarships awarded at matriculation are considered to form a part of college expenditure, though given for the encouragement of high school education. The sum spent on scholarships in Government schools, from funds controlled by Government officers and from endowments, was Rs. 34,012. There was no expenditure from local rates on scholarships tenable in aided schools. In recommending the institution of scholarships from such sources, the Provincial Committee observe: “Amongst of a progressive people it is felt to be no less a hardship that a boy of great natural capacity should be debarred by poverty from prosecuting his studies ef as far as his bent will take him, than that a boy of ordinary ability should “be debarred from that modicum of instruction which his equals in rank and “intellect enjoy. In India, where instruction has always been free of cost, this “sentiment is peculiarly strong. It will therefore be quite in accordance with “rational sentiment that provision should be made by Local Boards forscholar-“ships/”

Punjab.—The Provincial Report does not state the number of scholarships awarded to students of primary and middle schools respectively. , It appears, however, that Rs. 49,256 were spent on scholarships tenable in Government secondary schools of both classes. Nearly the whole sum was paid from public funds; namely, Rs. 13,181 from Provincial revenues and Rs. 33,547 from Local and Municipal Funds; only Rs. 1,650 being derived from endowments. In the opinion of our Provincial Committee, the District Committees are inclined to carry liberality to excess in their provision of scholarships, which, though partly awarded by merit, are commonly of the nature of subsistence allowance, A considerable portion of the fees realised in Government middle schools are merely deductions from scholarships. Until after the appointment of this Commission, no scholarships gained at the middle school examination were open to students in aided high schools. ~We are of opinion that the instructions of the Despatch have been as largely exceeded in the case of Government schools as they have been neglected in that of aided schools.

Central Provinces.—In the Central Provinces, 70 middle school scholarships tenable for two years in high schools are awarded on the results of the middle school examination, in addition to five scholarships specially attached to the Sagar middle school. The scholarships are open to every boy who has studied at any school in the Central Provinces for three years before the examination, and who is under 17 years of age ; they are tenable for two years at any high school, Government or aided. As there are no high schools except at Nagpur and Jabalpur, it is necessary to give scholarships with fair liberality, in order to enable poor but clever students of middle schools to continue their education at a distance from their homes. The value of the scholarships varies from Rs. 5 to Rs. 8 a month, according to the class gained by the scholar at the middle school examination; and its amount is less if he holds his scholarship at his own home than if he has to go to a high school at a distance. Scholarships varying in value from Rs. 9 to 10 a month, and tenable in any college, Government or aided, are also given to the best candidates at the matriculation examination. In 1881-82, 27 scholarships were thus awarded. The foregoing system of scholarships links superior middle schools to high schools and high schools to colleges. To unite inferior with superior middle schools there are also 23 scholarships, tenable for one or two years.

Assam.—In Assam there are 12 middle English scholarships, each of the value of Rs. 5 a month and tenable for two years in a high school; and 23 middle vernacular scholarships, each of the value of Rs. 4 and tenable for four years in a high school. There is also the Yizianagram scholarship, of the monthly value of Rs. 7, given annually to the pupil who passes highest at the middle scholarship examination, and tenable for two years in any high school where surveying is taught, or in an Engineering College. The middle school scholarships connect middle schools with high schools. To connect primary with middle schools, there are also 103 scholarships of the value of Rs. 3 a month, awarded after examination to pupils of primary schools, and tenable for two years in middle schools. To those high school students who stand highest at the matriculation examination of the Calcutta University, 20 scholarships are annually awarded. The scholarships are of two grades,—eleven of Rs. 20 and nine of Rs. 15 a month; and they are tenable for two years at any college in Bengal. The higher scholarships are reserved for the sons of persons actually resident or employed in the Brahmaputra valley Districts; the lower for pupils resident in the more advanced Districts of Sylhet and Cachar. Four of these scholarships are specially reserved for poor and deserving students.

Other Provinces.—A sum of Rs. 25 a month is given in scholarships to deserving students of the single high and middle school in Coorg. In the Haidarabad * Assigned Districts, there is a liberal provision of scholarships, tenable in upper primary schools, in middle schools, or in the high or middle departments of the two high schools. Each is of the value of Rs. 5 or 6 a month. Nine scholarships of the value of Rs. 20 a month are given to those boys who stand highest at the matriculation examination of the Bombay University, and are tenable at any college affiliated to that University. All scholarships are open to students of private as well as of Government schools ; but no scholarship is awarded to a student in a school situated in the town in which he resides.

281. Eecomendations as to Scholarships. —Our Recommendations under this head will be fully understood in connection with what has preceded, and need no further elucidation in detail. They stand as follows

(a) That in all Provinces the system of scholarships be so arranged that,

as suggested in the Despatch of 1854 they may form connecting links between the different grades of institutions ;

fbj That scholarships payable from public funds, including educational endowments not attached to a particular institution, be awarded after public competition without restriction, except in special cases, to students from any particular class of schools ;

fcj That scholarships gained in open competition be tenable, under proper safeguards to ensure the progress of the scholarship-holder, at any approved institution for general or special instruction;

(dj That the attention of the Government of Bombay be invited to the fact that, while the Despatch of 1854 provides for the creation of both free and stipendiary scholarships tenable in Government and private schools alike, almost exclusive stress is now laid in that Presidency upon free studentships, and that stipendiary scholarships are confined to students of Government schools;

(e) That the Government of Madras be invited to consider the necessity of revising the system of scholarships in secondary schools in that Presidency, with a view to bringing it into harmony with the provisions of the Despatch of 1854.

282. Recommendations as to Examinations.—Connected with the subject of scholarships is that of departmental examinations. It being understood that scholarships will in future be thrown open to candidates from all classes of schools, Government or private, it becomes a matter of importance to secure the co-operation of managers of aided and unaided schools in the conduct of these examinations. No imputation of unfairness, it should be clearly understood, has been made or suggested against the officers of the Department in the treatment of scholars from non-Government schools as regards these examinations; but the proposal that we have to submit on this point may be supported on two grounds. In the first place, it is desirable to enlarge the area from which competent examiners may be selected, and in the second place, we have little doubt that managers of non-Government schools would see, in the desire of the Department to secure their co-operation, an intention on its part to treat them as friends and allies, to take them into council, and to profit by the suggestions of their experience. We therefore recommend *that in the conduct of all departmental examinations, managers and teachers of the various non-Government schools be associated as far as possible with the officers of the Department.* Again, nothing in this connection is more important than the adoption of any means that are calculated to secure the impartiality and thoroughness of examinations for scholarships or certificates. Such examinations involve heavy additional duties, which are imposed not upon all officers as part of the ordinary routine of work, but upon men selected on account of their special competence. Those duties, we are strongly of opinion, should be remunerated; and men who are thought fit for the work of an examiner should not be compelled to undertake that duty, from which inferior men are exempt, without the satisfaction of feeling that their services are appreciated and rewarded. An examinership should be regarded as a coveted distinction, not as a duty to be shirked or inefficiently discharged in the hope of escaping it in future. The source from which examiners may be paid, either chiefly or wholly, will be found in the fees to be levied from candidates; and we are of opinion that it will often be desirable to supplement that provision by a moderate Government grant, as is done with great advantage even in Bengal where the fee-receipts are large. We therefore recommend *that in order to secure the*

efficiency of departmental examinations, examiners, whether officials or non-officials, be remunerated from the fees levied from candidates, increased when necessary by a grant from Government.

283. Recapitulation of Recommendations.—In all our discussions on the subject of secondary education, and in the Recommendations which we make with regard to it, we have been governed by the conviction that, while the strenuous efforts of the State should be directed in a still larger measure than heretofore to the improvement and extension of the elementary education of the masses, it is no less essential to the welfare of the community that provision should be made for the maintenance and development of colleges and schools of the higher class. At the same time we have indicated a distinction in the claims which primary and secondary education respectively have upon the support of the State, in the Recommendation which follows: *that it be distinctly laid down that the relation of the State to secondary is different from its relation to primary education, in that the means of primary education may be provided without regard to the existence of local co-operation, while it is ordinarily expedient to provide the means of secondary education only where adequate local co-operation is forthcoming; and that therefore, in all ordinary cases, secondary schools for instruction in English should hereafter be established by the State preferably on the footing of the system of grants-in-aid.* The principle herein declared is consistent with the establishment by Government, in exceptional cases, of secondary schools in places where they may be required in the interests of the people, and where the people themselves may not be advanced or wealthy enough to establish such schools for themselves with a grant-in-aid.

Our Recommendations stand as follows:—

(1) That in the upper classes of high schools there be two divisions,—one leading to the Entrance examination of the Universities, the other of a more practical character, intended to fit youths for commercial or other non-literary pursuits;

(2) That when the proposed bifurcation in secondary schools is carried out, the certificate of having passed by the final standard, or if necessary by any lower standard, of either of the proposed alternative courses, be accepted as a sufficient general test of fitness for the public service;

(3) That high and middle schools be united in the returns under the single term “secondary schools/⁵ and that the classification of students in secondary schools be provided for in a separate Table, showing the stage of instruction, whether primary, middle, or upper, of pupils in all schools of primary and secondary education;

(4) That a small annual grant be made for the formation and maintenance of libraries in all high schools;

(5) That the Grant-in-aid Code of each Province include provision for giving help to school-managers in the renewal, and if necessary the increase, of their furniture and apparatus of instruction after stated intervals;

(6) That an examination in the principles and practice of teaching be instituted, success in which should hereafter be a condition of permanent employment as a teacher in any secondary school, Government or aided;

(7) That graduates wishing to attend a course of instruction in a Normal school in the principles and practice of teaching be required to undergo a shorter course of training than others;

(8) That the claims of efficient and successful teachers in aided schools be considered in making appointments to posts in the service of Government, and that in cases duly certified by the Education Department the 25 years’ rule be relaxed;

(9) That the Director of Public Instruction, in consultation with the managers of schools receiving aid from Government, determine the scale of fees to be charged and the proportion of pupils to be exempted from payment therein;

(10) That in order to encourage the establishment of aided schools, the managers be not required to charge fees as high as those of a neighbouring Government school of the same class;

(11) That scholarship-holders, as such, be not exempted from payment of the ordinary fees;

(12) That in all Provinces the system of scholarships be so arranged that, as suggested in the Despatch of 1854, they may form connecting links between the different grades of institutions;

(13) That scholarships payable from public funds, including educational endowments not attached to a particular institution, be awarded after public competition without restriction, except in special cases, to students from any particular class of schools;

(14) That scholarships gained in open competition be tenable, under proper safeguards to ensure the progress of the scholarship-holder, at any approved institution for general or special instruction;

(15) That the attention of the Government of Bombay be invited to the fact that, while the Despatch of 1854 provides for the creation of both free and stipendiary scholarships tenable in Government and private schools alike, almost exclusive stress is now laid in that Presidency upon free student-ships, and that stipendiary scholarships are confined to students of Government schools;

(16) That the Government of Madras be invited to consider the necessity of revising the system of scholarships in secondary school that Presidency, with a view to bringing it into harmony with the provisions of the Despatch of 1854;

(17) That in the conduct of all departmental and teachers of the various non-Government schools be associated as far as possible, with the officers of the Department;

(18) That in order to secure the efficiency of departmental examinations, examiners, whether officials or non-officials, be remunerated from the fees levied from candidates, increased when necessary by a grant from Government;

(19) That the importance of requiring inspecting officers to see that the teaching and discipline of every school are such as to exert a right influence on the manners, the conduct, and the character of pupils, be re-affirmed;

(20) That continuous instruction in school without a break do not extend, as a rule, beyond three hours;

(21) That in the Punjab the course in Persian of high schools do not extend beyond the standard of the Entrance examination;

(22) That promotions from class to class be left entirely to the discretion of the school authorities;

(23) That it be distinctly laid down that the relation of the State to secondary is different from its relation to primary education, in that the means of primary education may be provided without regard to the existence of local co-operation, while it is ordinarily expedient to provide the means of secondary education only where adequate local co-operation is forthcoming; and that therefore, in all ordinary cases, secondary schools for instruction in English be hereafter established by the State preferably on the footing of the system of grants-in-aid.

CHAPTER VI.

COLLEGIATE EDUCATION.

284. Review of the Growth of Collegiate Education—In reviewing the growth of collegiate education in India, it will be convenient to treat separately the two periods before and after the establishment in 1857 of the Universities of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay. For, though the present scheme of collegiate education had even at an earlier period been worked out in its more important principles, it was affiliation to the University that definitely fixed the aims and shaped the course of collegiate study. Lord William Bentinck's Resolution had, indeed, long before determined the character of the colleges. But it was not at once possible entirely to abandon the old oriental methods for others so strange to a people so conservative. Nor did a number of colleges unconnected with each other constitute a system of collegiate education. There needed some central body to generalise the instruction, and to stamp with its recognition the acquirements of those who should submit themselves to its examinations. By the Universities projected in the Despatch of 1854 these wants were met, and since their foundation the colleges have been able to look upon themselves as component parts of an organised system.

285. The earlier Colleges and their Objects—The earliest Indian colleges, of whatever foundation, were designed for the cultivation of the classical learning of the Hindus and Musalmans, more especially in so far as that learning bore upon their religion, laws, and customs. Such were the Madrasa at Calcutta, the Sanskrit colleges at Calcutta and Benares, the Arabic and Persian colleges at Surat and Delhi. This preference, however, for the study of oriental classics was one which quickly gave way to an appreciation of the larger benefits to be derived from a knowledge of the English language and of Western modes of thought. Thus, twenty years before Lord William Bentinck's Resolution decided the controversy between the Anglicists and the Orientalists, the Hindus of Calcutta had founded a college⁴⁵ for the education in English "of the children of superior castes;" and when, in 1824, the Committee of Public Instruction decided upon establishing the Calcutta Sanskrit College, it was "against the expressed wishes of a body of native memorialists, with Raja "Ram Mohun Roy at their head, who prayed that the college might be for⁴⁶ English and not Sanskrit learning."

286. Bengal Proper.—In Bengal Proper, the colleges established previous to 1857 were fourteen in number. Of these the earliest was the Calcutta Madrasa founded by Warren Hastings in 1782, and for some years maintained at his expense. The original course of study included not only Arabic and Persian literature, but Muhammadan theology in all its branches, and was designed "to qualify the Muhammadans of Bengal for the public service, chiefly in the Courts of Justice, and to enable them to compete, on more equal terms with the Hindus, for employment under Government." At the outset the annual cost of the college was between Rs. 7,000 and Rs. 8,000; in 1785 lands estimated at Rs. 29,142 annually were assigned to it; in 1819 its expenditure was fixed by Government at Rs. 30,000, provided by the public treasury. Benevolent as were the intentions of the founder, and notwithstanding the modifications of

the original plan made from time to time, the college did not prosper. In 1829 an English Department had been constituted, and in this the Bengali language was also taught. Twenty years later an Anglo-Arabic class was added to the Arabic Department, but after a trial of three or four years the Council of Education declared that the measure had "proved quite inadequate to the object." The Council, indeed, confessed that the endeavour to impart a high order of English education to the Muhammadan community had been a complete failure. They, therefore, proposed entirely to remodel the college; and with the assent of Lord Dalhousie it was made to consist of two main divisions—the "Arabic College" for students of the higher branches of the Arabic language and literature (exclusive of science), and a "Junior Departments Upon this footing the Madrasa was maintained till 1869, when fresh changes were made which will be noticed in another part of this Report. The first college, then, founded in Bengal after its conquest by the British, owed its origin to the generosity of a Governor-General, and had for its object the cultivation of oriental learning. The next in order of time was founded by the voluntary contributions of the native gentry of Calcutta for the teaching of the English language and European science. This was in 1817. Subscriptions were collected to the amount of Rs. 61,000 towards the maintenance of the college, but the experiment was at first made upon a small scale and for some years the Hindu College did not number more than sixty or seventy students. It would, indeed, have shortly ceased to exist had not the Government encouraged its continuance by a grant of money and by salutary advice. The appointment as Visitor of Mr. Horace Hayman Wilson, the famous Sanskrit scholar, was one which commended itself to the approval of the native community; and his energetic interest soon "threw new life into the system." The number of students rapidly increased, and in 1830 they are put down at four hundred, the annual expenditure at that time being over Rs. 26,000. Moreover, although the Committee of Public Instruction still adhered in the main to its preference for orientalism, it was able to recognise the importance and value of this new phase of education. Thus in its report for 1831 we find the Hindu College spoken of in the following terms:

"In addition to the measures adopted for the diffusion of English in the provinces . . . the encouragement of the Vidyalaya or Hindu College of Calcutta has always been one of the chief objects of the Committee's attention. The consequence has surpassed expectation,—a command of the English language and a familiarity with its literature and science have been acquired to an extent rarely equalled by any schools in Europe. A taste for English has been widely disseminated, and independent schools conducted by young men, reared in the Vidyalaya, are springing up in every direction. The moral effect has been equally remarkable, and an impatience of the restrictions of Hinduism, and a disregard of its ceremonies, are openly avowed by many young men of respectable birth and talents, and entertained by many more who outwardly conform to the practices of their country* men. Another generation will probably witness a very material alteration in the notions and feelings of the educated classes of the Hindu community of Calcutta." From this date the success of the institution was continuous. In 1855 it was merged in the Presidency College then founded by Lord Dalhousie with an establishment of a Principal and eleven Professors at an annual cost of Rs. 1,01,140, and comprising in its course of study Arts, Medicine, Law, and Civil Engineering. Next in order of time was the College established at Serampur in 1838 by the Baptist Missionaries, Drs. Carey, Marshman, and Ward. "The professed object of this

“ institution was conversion, and to this end instruction in the tenets of Christianity was to be combined with Sanskrit and Arabic literature, so as to give the student a thorough knowledge of the doctrines he was to teach, as well as of those he was to oppose.”⁵ “In 1821 it received a munificent donation from the King of Denmark, consisting of certain premises to the north-west of the college, and this act of liberality was followed in 1828 by the grant of a royal charter, giving perpetuity to the institution and its endowments. At the cession of Serampur to the East India Company, this charter was confirmed at the especial request of the Danish sovereign. The ground on which the college stands was purchased chiefly by subscription; the entire expense of the buildings, amounting to about £15,000, was met out of the private funds of the Serampur Missionaries, who were the first promoters of the undertaking.” In 1830, Dr. Duff, who for so many years laboured in the cause of education in India, founded the General Assembly’s Institution of the Church of Scotland with the object “ of imparting the highest forms of knowledge, including sound Christian instruction, through the medium of the English language. Valuable help in the way of procuring pupils was given at the commencement by the famous Rajah Earn Moliun Eoy⁶ and shortly afterwards “ the Governor General declared publicly that “ the college had produced ‘ unparalleled results.”⁵ The division in the Scottish Church in 1843 ^ to the establishment of the Free Church Institution, supported by the Free Church of Scotland; while the General Assembly’s Institution, temporarily closed in 1844, was reopened in 1846, The two institutions have continued to flourish up to the present date, and are among the most important of the colleges affiliated to the Calcutta University. The four last-mentioned colleges, whatever else the difference of their constitution, had this much in common that they both aimed at imparting “ useful learning.” Against none of them could it be charged that their promoters bound themselves “to teach a great deal of what was frivolous, not a little of what was purely mischievous, and a small remainder indeed in which utility was in any way concerned. In the Calcutta Sanskrit College, which the Committee of Public Instruction established in 1824, the case was different. There, as in the Benares Sanskrit College, the only science taught was science in accordance with the fairy tales of Hindu imagination. But to such teaching, provided it was accompanied by the study of Sanskrit literature, the Committee had no objection. Themselves accomplished oriental scholars, they believed that no better education could be given to the natives of India than, one which familiarised the student with the literary treasures which his forefathers had heaped up. Such learning might conduce nothing to practical success in life. It might not promote good citizenship. It was certain to stereotype error. Yet, in the eyes of the Committee, “the still vigorous prejudices” “of both Muhammadans and Hindus” rendered it necessary for the present to adhere to that order of things which was so eloquently denounced in the Despatch of the Court of Directors, dated February 18th, 1824. It was to no purpose that Ram Mohun Eoy, the ablest representative of the more advanced members of the Hindu community, expressed “deep disappointment on the part of himself and his countrymen at the resolution “of Government to establish a new Sanskrit college instead of a seminary “designed to impart instruction in the Arts, Sciences, and Philosophy of Europe. His letter of protest was treated as scarcely deserving notice, and it took twelve years of controversy, the advocacy of Macaulay, and the decisive action of a new Governor General, before the Committee could, as a body, acquiesce in the policy urged by him.”^f That the Sanskrit College

⁵ A Despatch of the Court of Directors, 18th February 1824.
⁶ T. Howell’s Note on Education previous to 1824.

has since done useful work it would be unjust not to acknowledge. But its usefulness began only when, abandoning the idea of employing Sanskrit as a medium of instruction in science and general knowledge, it confined its study of that language to points literary and philological. To such study perhaps hardly sufficient attention has of late years been paid in India; and though in its original constitution the college may have been ill adapted to modern requirements, the existence in Calcutta of the numerous institutions which impart western knowledge by western methods justifies the retention of a special college for the study of a language of such varied importance. The foundation of the Hugli College a few years later was due to circumstances of a special nature. In the year 1806, a Muhammadan gentleman, resident in the Hugli District, died leaving an estate worth Rs. 45,000 a year in trust for "pious uses." Among these "pious uses" were the performance of certain religious rites and ceremonies, the repair of a place of worship, the maintenance of certain establishments, and the payment of certain pensions. A few years later, the trustees of the estate were accused of malversation, and were ultimately dismissed. "The Government then constituted itself a trustee, and assumed the management of the estate and the superintendence of the disbursements in conjunction with another trustee appointed by itself."* This was in the year 1816, and for a considerable period the proceeds of the estate seem to have been devoted to the "pious uses" already specified. In 1835, however, it was decided to devote a portion of the trust funds to the foundation of a college at Hugli. This appropriation "was at the time justified on the ground that the maintenance of an educational institution was a pious use, and so within the testator's intentions. The college was opened on the 1st August 1836, and within three days counted 1,200 pupils in the English, and 300 in the Oriental Department; the proportion of Muhammadans to Hindus being 31 to 948 in the former, and 138 to 81 in the latter. The reports for 1836, and the few following years, contain a full account of the progress of this institution; but nowhere does it appear to have been sufficiently borne in mind that the interpretation placed on the declared intention of the founder was only applicable to Muhammadan education." This fact has long been a grievance to the Musalman community, and it is only in late years that an effectual remedy has been applied. "But it is only fair to remember that the Oriental Department, as constituted in 1836, was quite adequate for the number of students who came forward to avail themselves of it, and that the Committee of Public Instruction would certainly have enlarged this Department, had the demand for the kind of education it offered increased."* Besides the above-mentioned institutions there were at Dacca, Berhampur, and Krishna gar Government colleges, to the buildings of which private liberality also contributed; the Doveton, La Martinière, and St. Paul's, private foundations, and the Bhowanipur College maintained by the London Missionary Society. Thus, of the fourteen colleges in existence prior to 1857, were established by Government, while eight were the result of private effort chiefly on the part of English associations.

287. North-Western Provinces of Bengal—Turning to the North-Western Provinces of Bengal, we find that four colleges had come into existence before the year 1857. Of these the earliest, that founded at Benares in 1791, was "designed to cultivate the laws, literature, and religion of the Hindus," and "specially to supply qualified Hindu assistants to European judges." The funds assigned for its maintenance were "a certain portion of the surplus revenue of the province" [of Benares], the expenditure sanctioned

* Howell's Note on Education previous to 1854*

for the first year being Rs. 14,000,—a sum -which in the following year was increased to Rs. 20,000. For the first thirty years of its existence, the college was little better than a failure. Under its original management it quickly fell into every kind of irregularity and disorder, and the first Superintendent, being charged with embezzlement of funds, was dismissed in 1799. His successor, another Pandit, if more honest, was scarcely more capable. In 1820, therefore, an English officer, Captain Pell, was appointed Superintendent. Certain reforms were introduced, and some progress was made, more especially by the addition of an English Department in 1830. But the real reformers of the college were Mr. John Muir, appointed Principal in 1844, and his successor, Dr. Ballantyne, whose labours continued till 1860. At the outset, the instruction given was confined to the Sanskrit language and literature; Hindus only were admitted, and all the pupils were stipendiaries. The addition of the English Department quickly altered the character of the institution. The purely Sanskrit classes dwindled in numbers as the study of English became more and more popular; non-stipendiary students sought admission, and in 1832 formed about half the attendance. A year or two later stipends were abolished, and fees began to be levied. The natural consequence was a fall in the numbers. This depression, however, did not last long. Before 1854 the muster roll was nearly as high as it had ever been, strict discipline had taken the place of the early laxity, the English Department had classes scarcely inferior to those now reading for the B.A. degree, and the study of Sanskrit was as thorough and as scientific as it had once been antiquated and uncritical. The changing conditions of society had of course acted powerfully upon the college, but it was chiefly to Dr. Ballantyne's energy, skill, and learning that Benares owed the quickening of her intellectual life. Whether because of the scanty measure of success which attended the experiment at Benares, or because of the unsettled state of the country, we meet with no extension of collegiate education in the North-Western Provinces till the years 1823-25. The colleges then founded at Agra and Delhi differed in some important respects from the older institution. In the first place, admission was unrestricted. In the second, the course of studies was of a more practical character. Though the Sanskrit, Arabic, and Persian languages formed part of the course, these subjects were secondary in importance to the vernaculars, through which Science, Philosophy, and Mathematics were taught. An English Department was early formed in each of the colleges, and the ebb of pupils from the Oriental Department quickly indicated the value placed upon the acquisition of European knowledge. A partial and temporary arrest of the growth of both colleges followed, as at Benares, upon the abolition of stipends and the exaction of fees. At Delhi, indeed, the former measure was so severely felt that for a time the Local Committee found it advisable to revert to the old system. The General Committee, however, though making certain concessions, pronounced firmly against stipends, and their wisdom justified itself; for, if the oriental classes never again reached their former numbers, the more modern education was fast becoming recognised as a necessity, and before 1857 Delhi and Agra boasted of colleges which in point of management, discipline, and the attainments of their scholars, fell but little behind the most successful institutions of Calcutta and its neighbourhood. It should be mentioned that both colleges, though nominally supported by Government, owed a great deal to private liberality. Thus to the maintenance of the Agra College there was appropriated " a fund " amounting to about a lakh and a half of rupees, consisting of collections from " villages formerly held by Gungadhar Pandit, the receipts from which, together " with the annual collections, would exceed Rs. 20,000 per annum/⁵ Scarcely less munificent was the bequest of the Nawab Itimad-ud-daulat, Prime

Minister to the King of Oudh, who in 1829 endowed the Delhi College with the sum of Rs. 1,70,000. To the colleges already mentioned has to be added that at Bareilly, which in 1850 arose out of the high school founded in 1836,

288. Madras* Collegiate education in the Madras Presidency needs but a comparatively brief account: for while Bengal and Bombay started with the attempt to cultivate the classical languages of the East, and to educate their students in the theological and legal lore of the faith to which they belonged, in Madras it was recognised from the first that the only sound basis for the higher education lay in a training according to European methods. One reason of this difference is to be found in the date at which that higher education was set on foot. Of the institutions in Madras which previous to 1857 had a claim to be called colleges, none date further back than 1837; none, that is, came into existence till the controversy between the Anglicists and the Orientalists had been finally decided. Another reason was that the old religious literature had less hold on the affections of the people, and that the importance of conciliating religious feeling had not impressed itself so strongly upon the Madras Government. The colleges, therefore, from their first beginning were in character much what they now are, though in efficiency and completeness great strides have since been made. To a Missionary body belongs the honour of having founded the first institution of the kind, the General Assembly's Institution, as its earlier title was, the Madras Christian College, as it is now called. Here alone, for several years, could a native of Southern India obtain a liberal education. The Presidency College which came into existence as a High School in 1841, and in a few years was practically a college, did not receive the higher title till 1855; while St. Joseph's College, which was founded at Negapatam in 1846 by the Jesuits in charge of the Madura Mission, only entered upon its enlarged field of operations some years after the establishment of the Madras University..

289. Bombay—In the Bombay, as in the Bengal, Presidency, the earlier collegiate education was of the oriental type, the first college, that founded at Poona in 1821, being designed "for the encouragement of the study of Sanskrit and of ancient Hindu literature and science." The college opened with nearly a hundred students, the annual outlay being Rs. 25,250. So small, however, was its success that in 1823 the Court of Directors had all but determined to cut short its existence. From this fate it was saved by the protest of Mountstuart Elphinstone, who urged that when once the college had become an established place of resort for Brahmans, it would be easy to introduce such gradual improvements in its organisation as would make the institution a powerful instrument for the diffusion of knowledge and for the encouragement of the learning of the country. In 1834 the constitution of the college was remodelled, and from 1837, when Captain Candy was appointed Superintendent, steady progress began to be made. Certain branches of Hindu learning were dropped, the study of the vernacular and of English was introduced, and the college was opened to all classes. About the same time the medical class, which had been closed, was reopened; and European medical works were studied in conjunction with the more useful portions of the Sanskrit treatises which had originally formed the course of instruction. In 1851-52 the separate English and Normal (Vernacular) Schools at Poona were amalgamated with the Sanskrit and Vernacular College, and thus was laid the foundation of the present Arts College, which began working in 1857 and was affiliated to the Bombay University in 1860. The Presidency, or Elphinstone, College had its origin in a fund raised in 1827 for the foundation of "one or more" professorships (to be denominated the Elphinstone professorships, and to be

“ lield by gentlemen from Great Britain until the happy period arrive, when
 “ natives shall be perfectly competent to hold them).”^{*} The control of these
 professorships was to be vested in the hands of the “Bombay Native Education
 “ Society for teaching the English language, and the arts, sciences, and litera-
 “ ture of Europe.” The subscriptions, with accumulations, ultimately reached
 the sum of Rs. 4,43,901, and the Court of Directors, glad to give effect to a
 desire which had expressed itself in so practical a manner, authorised the founda-
 tion of the Elphinstone College. “ Mr. Elphinstone was empowered to select
 “ the first professors, and in 1834 the Bombay Government undertook the
 “ general superintendence of the college, and to defray all expenditure in excess
 “ of the income derived from the fees and endowment funds. The amount of
 “ this subsidy was Rs. 22,000 per annum, and it was continued at this rate
 “ down to the year 1864. The immediate control of the college was vested
 “ in a council of nine trustees. Suitable professors were selected. Dr.
 “ Harkness arrived from England in 1835, and the beginning of the follow-
 “ ing year, with Mr. Bal Gangadhar Shastri as Assistant Professor, the first
 “ lectures were delivered in English literature and modern science. In its first
 “ year the college was endowed with twelve scholarships, founded in honour
 “ of Sir Edward West, a former Chief Justice of Bombay. Notwithstanding
 “ these endowments and the eclat of its foundation, the Elphinstone College
 “ did not prosper. It was not placed under the management of the Native
 “ Education Society, and thus the college and the Society's central English
 “ schools, which were its main feeders, necessarily exhibited the usual results
 “ of divided counsel and dual management. Government resolved, therefore,
 “ to unite the two classes of institutions, and in April 1840 the school and
 “ college classes were united into one institution, called the Elphinstone Insti-
 “ tution, and placed under a Board of Education, which consisted of three
 “ members appointed by Government and three by the Native Education
 “ Society as its final act. The English classes of the institution after the
 “ amalgamation contained 681 pupils, of whom 341 paid a fee of one rupee
 “ monthly.³⁵¹ In 1844 a class was added for instruction in Surveying and Civil
 Engineering under a Professor specially engaged by the Court of Directors,
 and two years later a Professor of Botany and Chemistry was added to the
 staff. The Poona and Elphinstone Colleges, though differing in their original
 object, had thus, before 1857, become colleges of the purely modern type. The
 Surat Arabic College, on the other hand, maintained throughout its original
 constitution. Pounded in 1809 by Muhammadans of the Borah class, it had by
 1824 acquired considerable repute and was attended by 125 students, many
 of whom came from distant parts of the country and were boarded on the
 college premises. The annual expenditure at this date is stated to have been
 Rs. 32,000. Thirty years later it was still in a flourishing condition; but
 “ secular studies never forming more than a nominal part of the college
 “ curriculum, the institution was never considered to be entitled to any aid
 “ from Government/^f and recently, for various reasons, it has fallen into com-
 plete decay.

290. Collegiate Education from 1857 to 1882—Collegiate education in
 the pre-University period was so various in its types, and so changing in its
 character, that it has been necessary to illustrate it by reference at some
 length to individual colleges. From the foundation of the Universities it
 became more nearly uniform; and in tracing its history from 1857 to the present
 date, we may confine ourselves pretty closely to statistics. The one great feature

^{*} Record of a Meeting held in Bombay, in August 1827.
^f Bombay Provincial Report, pp. 8,9.

that marks the quarter of a century with which we are now dealing is the large increase in the number of non - Government colleges. Of these the Missionary bodies, of whatever denomination, have been the chief founders. But there is also a goodly proportion of highly successful colleges which owe their existence to the enterprise of native societies or to the liberality of native Princes and Chiefs.

291. Madras.—In Madras, between 1854 and 1871, there were five Government colleges with an attendance at the latter date of 288 students. The non-Government colleges were seven with 151 students. Two of the Government colleges and the Free Church Mission Institution taught up to the B.A. standard. Between 1872 and 1881 there were ten Government and fourteen non-Government colleges, of which latter twelve received grants-in-aid. The number of students in the twenty-four colleges had risen from 439 in 1872 to 1,521 in 1881 ; and during the ten years, 1,624 candidates had passed the F.A., 726 the B.A., and 17 the M.A. examinations of the Madras University.

292. Bombay.—In Bombay at the incorporation of the University two colleges only, both maintained by Government, were affiliated. A year later their number was increased by the addition of the Free General Assembly's Institution, and in 1869 St. Xavier's College came on to the list. In the four years from 1861 to 1864 the average of students who each year passed the F.A., B.A., and M.A. examinations was respectively 14, 7, and 1. The corresponding averages for the years 1865 to 1870 were 31, 15, 4, and for the years 1871 to 1881, 63, 30, 3. At the latter date the colleges were six* in number, of which two were maintained by Missionary bodies. Four of these colleges were of the first grade, two of the second.

293. Bengal .—As might be expected, the greater wealth of the province and its earlier commercial intercourse with England have combined to make Bengal foremost in the number of its students. Omitting institutions for professional or special training, Bengal had in 1854-55 six Government colleges with 192 students, and eight non-Government colleges, the number of whose students is not stated. Eight years later there were fifteen colleges, of which the seven maintained by Government had in them 579 students. From 1862-63 to 1870-71, the number of Government colleges increased from seven to eleven, five non-Government colleges received grants-in-aid, and there were three unaided colleges. At the end of the next decade the Government colleges were twelve in number with 1,260 students; while the five aided and three unaided colleges had together almost precisely the same total. Of the Government colleges seven were of the first grade, and five, including the college classes of the Bethune Female School, of the second.

294. North-Western Provinces and Oudh—By the transfer of the Delhi District to the Punjab at the close of the Mutiny, the North-Western Provinces lost one of their most successful colleges. The remaining three continued to prosper, and between 1862 and 1871 they passed 96 candidates at the F.A., 26 at the B.A., and 5 at the M.A. examinations of the Calcutta University. Besides the Government colleges there were also in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh five aided colleges, from which during the same period 24 candidates had been successful at the F.A. examination and 3 at the B.A. Between 1872 and 1881, the Government and aided colleges

* Excluding the Grant Medical College and the College of Science at Poona, both of which prepare candidates for the degree of Bachelor of Science.

varied from 6 to 10; in the first of these years there were 9, in the last 8.* The total number of students at the end of the period was 339,* and during the ten years the successful candidates at the University examinations were in the E.A. 365, in the B.A. 130, in the M.A. 34. The Muir College, Allahabad, which began working in 1872, had its origin in a desire to centralise the higher education, English and Oriental. It was expected that the new college would “gradually draw to itself all the young men of the” (North-Western) “Provinces who may wish to obtain the Calcutta University degrees of B.A. or M.A., and especially such as read for Honours/5 It should “also become a centre of education in another aspect, as the focus of an improved system of vernacular education. It is intended to affiliate with the Allahabad College all vernacular schools in the Provinces by means of annual examinations, and to transfer pupils thus selected for advanced instruction in science through the medium of the vernacular, and in oriental classics, with a view to the conferment of appropriate titles or Orders of Merit, suited to the usages of the country/5f To provide funds for the staff required for such an institution, it was found necessary to reduce the number of European Professors in the three other colleges at Agra, Bareilly, and Benares. Thus weakened, these colleges fell off in efficiency; while the declaration that no scholarships would be given in them to students reading for any examination higher than that for the B.A. degree, the feeling that the central college was the object of especial favour, the fact that its staff of Professors was more numerous than that of the other colleges and so afforded greater option in the course of studies, the richer endowment of local scholarships, and the belief that Government would before long withdraw from the support of any but this one college, combined to impoverish and depreciate the less favoured colleges, one of which, that at Bareilly, had to be closed in 1876. If, then, the Muir College has partially succeeded in one of its two objects, that of drawing to itself the more promising students of the Province, its success has not been without drawbacks, and we cannot be surprised that dissatisfaction should be felt in many quarters at such an outlay, while the various claims upon the State purse for help towards other kinds of education still remain unsatisfied. The only logical sequel, as it appears to us, of the policy adopted in the North-Western Provinces in founding, under the circumstances described, a new college at Allahabad, was to close the other colleges as soon as it came into working order. To allow their continuance in impaired strength and with a prospect of eventual disestablishment, was to ensure their gradual decay.

295. Punjab —The Delhi College, which had been closed after the Mutiny, was revived by the Punjab Government. in 1864, when a second college was established at Lahore; an aided college was also maintained at the former place by the American Mission from 1865 to 1868. In 1877 the college classes at Delhi were closed in order that the staff of the Government College at Lahore might be strengthened without an increase of expenditure. Previous to their abolition the Delhi College had passed 61 candidates at the E.A., 18 at the B.A., and 4 at the M.A. examinations: the average number of students on the rolls in its last year was 37. During the 18 years of its existence, the Lahore College has passed 84 candidates at the E.A. examination, 25 at the B.A., and 7 at the M.A. Its students in 1882 numbered 103. Reference to the constitution of the Punjab Oriental College” has already been made, and a fuller description will be found later on. Shortly after the abolition of the Delhi College an effort was made to resuscitate it on the basis of an aided college. Some sixty

* if including Oriental Departments.

V letter of Mr. Kempton, Director of Public Instruction, to the Secretary to Government, North-Western Provinces, dated 5th January 1872.

thousand rupees were promised, but the Lieutenant-Governor considered this sum quite insufficient and was, moreover, unwilling to recognise annual subscriptions as a stable source of income. Under these circumstances, the Cambridge Mission, which was preparing to form a college class for students connected with the Mission, offered to establish an aided college for the benefit of the public at large. This offer was accepted by Government, and a grant-in-aid of Rs. 5,400, together with a special grant of Rs. 2,000 for scientific apparatus, was sanctioned for the first year.

296. Central Provinces.—In the Central Provinces there is only one Government college, which is situated at Jabalpur, and which, though affiliated up to the B.A. standard, has not as yet sent up candidates for that examination. Students, therefore, wishing to proceed to the B.A. or M.A. degree have hitherto joined one or other of the colleges in the North-Western Provinces. But so satisfactory has been the progress of the college since in 1870-71 it began to compete for University distinctions, that in our Recommendations we have invited the attention of the Local Government to the subject of sanctioning a staff adequate to the full University course. During the past year several well-attended meetings were held in various parts of the Province with the object of securing the establishment of at least one first grade college, and it is hoped that the liberality of the wealthier classes will second in a substantial manner such measures as may be taken by the Government to meet their wishes. An aided college has also been established in the current year by the Mission of the Free Church of Scotland at Nagpur.

297. Ajmir.—The high school at Ajmir was in 1868 raised to the status of a college, which since that time has sent up candidates to the F.A. examination of the Calcutta University, and also, of late years, to the High Proficiency examination of the Punjab University.

298. Colleges needing special Notice.—Of the colleges established between 1857 and 1882, there are three whose original character seem to need some special notice. These are the Canning College at Lucknow, the Oriental College at Lahore, and the Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh.

299. The Canning College, Lucknow.—First of these in order of time comes the Lucknow College founded in 1864 by the talukdars of Oudh in grateful memory of the generous treatment they received from Lord Canning at the close of the Mutiny. In order to ensure the permanence of the institution the talukdars bound themselves and their heirs, by a special deed, to allow the half per cent, cess on the land revenue to be levied by Government for the benefit of the college. Originally the amount derived from this source was Rs. 25,000 a year, and an annual grant of the same value was then made by the Government of India, and has been continued up to the present date. Since the revision of settlements, the average income from the talukdars' endowment has for the last five years been Rs. 40,918. In addition to the endowment and the grant-in-aid, the receipts from fees average Rs. 5,000 a year. The college, which is managed by a Committee of six Government officers and an equal number of talukdars, has two departments, the English and the Oriental. In the former it is affiliated to the Calcutta University, at whose examinations it has since 1869 passed 116 candidates for the P.A., 45 for the B.A., and 9 for the M.A. Progress on its Oriental side, in which the studies are exclusively Arabic, Sanskrit, and Persian, has been principally tested by the examinations of the Punjab University College, and here again its success has been considerable. In everything connected with the college, and its oriental branch

more especially, the talukdars take the deepest interest. Looking on the institution as one founded by themselves, they are not unnaturally jealous of Government interference; but they welcome improvements, provided they themselves are associated with the agency for carrying them out.

300. The Oriental College at Lahore.—The Oriental College at Lahore is one of the most important constituents of the Punjab University College. Originally a school, it was in 1870 raised to its present status, and now consists of the following classes: two Sanskrit classes, two Arabic, two Persian, two Punjabi; four for Proficiency * and High Proficiency * in Arts in Urdu and Hindi, and one for Honours in Arts in Urdu. Since 1871-72, 21 candidates have passed the Proficiency, 2 the High Proficiency, and 1 the Honour examination in Sanskrit, 27 have passed the Middle and 10 the Higher examination; in Arabic, 31 the Middle and 15 the Higher; in Persian, 69 the Middle and 26 the Higher; in Panjabi, 4 the Middle. At the end of the year 1881-82, the number on the rolls was 122, of whom 43 were Hindus, 71 Musalmans, and 8 Sikhs. Persian was studied by 25, Arabic by 37, Sanskrit by 19, and Gurmukhi, or Sikh literature, by 10. Students in the College Department have passed the Entrance or some other University examination, or are studying for one of the higher examinations of the University, but otherwise there is no strict line of separation between the college and school. For the Urdu and Hindi classes translations from European works have been published in such subjects as arithmetic, algebra, Euclid, trigonometry, the elements of statics, history (ancient and modern), geography, psychology, political economy, chemistry, physics, descriptive astronomy, hydrostatics, dynamics, logic (deductive and inductive), &c. Whether these translations are adequate to the purpose is a matter of controversy on which no opinion can be given, since the dispute has not yet been referred to any competent tribunal for adjudication. The essential point in which this college differs from other oriental colleges is, that while it cultivates the oriental classical languages, it also claims to impart the higher branches of European knowledge and science through the medium of the Indian vernaculars.

301. The Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh.—The circumstances that gave rise to the foundation of the Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh are thus described in a letter from the Honourable Sayyid Ahmad Khan, Bahadur, Honorary Secretary, Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College Fund Committee, to the Director of Public Instruction, North-Western Provinces, dated June 1881 : “ It will be sufficient to say that a body of influential Muhammadan gentlemen, who interested themselves in education, “ being mournfully aware of the backwardness of the Muhammadan population in the matter of English education, regarded the circumstance as a great “ evil, not only to the immediate moral, social, and political welfare of their own “ co-religionists, but to the country at large. Their enquiries roused the most “ serious apprehensions in regard to the future of their co-religionists under the British rule, and they formed themselves into a committee to raise funds for establishing the present college. The original object of some of the supporters of the committee was to confine the college to the Muhammadans for whose special benefit educational facilities were to be provided. But so much good-will, sympathy, and generosity were displayed by the Hindu nobility and gentry, that the committee in establishing the college declared it open to Hindu students also, especially as the curriculum (beyond religious in-

-d ♦ The terms given by the Punjab University to examinations equivalent in difficulty to the F.A. and J.S.A. of other Indian Universities.

“struction) pursued in the college suited Hindus and Muhammadans alike, and the former showed a readiness to join the college. In the matter of scholarships, prizes and other college rewards, the rules of the college show no partiality to either Hindus or Muhammadans, whilst the committee has provided separate boarding-houses for Hindu students. The college is conducted upon the most advanced principles of toleration, and whilst the immediate control of it is vested in a European Principal and a European Head-Master, the staff of Professors and Teachers consists of Hindus and Muhammadans. The committee can congratulate themselves upon the circumstance that they have never observed the smallest indication of any feeling other than friendly spirit between the Hindu and Muhammadan students, and they are sincerely convinced that the college (though naturally a place of exceptional attraction to Muhammadan students) may, as an educational agency, be regarded as suited alike to Hindus and Muhammadans.’ The committee formed for the collection of funds began its work in 1872, and up to the present time the amount realised is something over three lakhs of rupees, exclusive of the contributions to the building fund. The annual income of the college is Rs. 34,000, while the expenditure for the last year exceeded the income by Rs. 2,538. Fully to carry out the scheme of the college, it is calculated that the income must be raised to Rs. 60,000 per annum; but it may reasonably be expected that the Government will before long find it possible to increase the amount of its grant-in-aid (now only Rs. 6,000* out of Rs. 34,000), and a considerable addition will accrue from the fees as soon as a larger number of quarters is completed for the residence of boarders. For the college buildings, including 164 rooms for boarders, a sum of Rs. 5,31,000 will ultimately be required, and of this Rs. 1,62,963 has already been subscribed. At present the buildings completed consist of eleven class rooms, and one central hall; twenty-five rooms for first class boarders, and forty-nine for those of the second class; a house for the head-master; a small dispensary and some temporary boarding-houses. Besides these, the foundations of the entire college have been sunk, a park has been laid out, and the wall on one side of the college grounds has been finished. Beginning with about 20 students in June 1875, the school and college now contain nearly 300, of whom 29 are in the latter department. Since 1877, 55 candidates have gone up for the Entrance examination, of whom 36 have passed; 10 out of 17 have succeeded in the F.A. during the three years the college has been affiliated up to that standard; and there are now 8 students reading for the B.A. degree. As originally constituted, the college had two departments, the English and the Oriental. In the former, all subjects were taught in English; Arabic, Persian or Sanskrit, being taken up as a “second language in the latter, either Arabic or Persian was studied for its literature; while history, geography, mathematics, &c., were taught in Urdu, and English became the “second language.*” But this Department, which has never attracted many students, and now numbers 15 only, will probably be abolished before long. At the head of the college is a European Principal, with seven Native Professors, three of whom are Masters of Arts in the Calcutta University; the school has a European Head-Master, seven Native English Teachers, and six Arabic, Persian, and Hindi Teachers. In scholarships the college awarded Rs. 3,764 during the past year. Of these, some were from permanent endowments for special purposes, such as the Patiala and the Northbrook scholarships, some from yearly donations by private gentlemen, and some from the college income. Religious instruction is given to Sunnis by a Sunni Teacher, to Shias by one of their own sect, in either Arabic or Persian, according as the one language or the other has been chosen by the student for his college course; and the managing commit-

* The grant has since been raised to Rs. 12,000 a year.

tee is willing that similar instruction should be given to Hindu students in their own sacred books. The business of the college is managed by two committees; one, composed of Native and European gentlemen, dealing with matters of instruction only; the other, composed entirely of Native gentlemen, which regulates the general concerns of the institution. Much of the popularity of the college is due to the provision for the residence of students belonging to families of the upper classes. The rooms of the first class boarders are scarcely less comfortable than those of an undergraduate at Oxford or Cambridge, and the Musalmans take their meals together in a dining hall. To a first class boarder the cost of living at the college is about Rs. 300 a year, which includes rent, board, medical attendance, and tuition fees; a second class boarder pays about Rs. 190. Of the two classes there were, in 1881-82, 171 in residence, of whom 16 were Hindus. At the outset, the undertaking met with very great opposition from many Musalmans of the old school. All sorts of rumours were spread abroad as to the character of the institution and the heterodoxy of the supporters. Fortunately, however, the originator of the scheme, the Honourable Sayyid Ahmad Khan, was not to be daunted by opposition, or deterred by want of sympathy. In the esteem of the more liberal minded of his co-religionists he held the highest place; and his perseverance was before long rewarded by the hearty co-operation of powerful friends. Chief among those who came forward to his support was Sir Salar Jung, Prime Minister to the Nizam. His lead was followed by many influential Musalmans in all parts of the country; and though the college funds are at present insufficient for the complete working of the scheme, the number of students is now limited chiefly by the want of accommodation. If, then, the Musalmans are to be reproached for not having availed themselves at an earlier stage of the benefits of the education offered them by Government, they have certainly set an example to the generality of the population by founding and maintaining, almost without State aid, a college in some respects superior to any educational institution in India, and one which bids fair to be of the greatest importance from a political as well as from an educational point of view.

302. Colleges maintained by Native Princes and Chiefs—The following colleges owe their existence to the enlightened liberality of Native Princes and Chiefs: The Haidarabad College, maintained by His Highness the Nizam; the Mysore and Bangalore Colleges, and the Shimaga High School maintained by the Mysore Government; the Trevandram College, maintained by His Highness the Maharaja of Travancore; the Yizianagram College, maintained by His Highness the Maharaja; the Kerala Vidyasala, Calicut, maintained by His Highness the Zamorin Maharaja Bahadur; the High School, Cochin, maintained by the Cochin Government; the College at Puddukotta, maintained by the Maharaja; the Eajaram College, maintained by the Kolhapur State; the Baroda College, maintained by His Highness the Gaekwar; the Kathiawar Kajkumar College at Rajkot; the Bardwan College, maintained by the Maharaja; the Jaipur College, maintained by His Highness the Maharaja; the Sehor High School, maintained by Her Highness the Begum of Bhopal and the neighbouring Chiefs; the Patiala College, maintained by His Highness the Maharaja; the Rajkumar College in Bundelkhand, maintained by the Chiefs of that territory; and the Residency College at Indore. Most of these are in Native States, and do not appear in our statistical Tables; but they deserve mention here as a striking proof that educational progress is not confined to British India.

303. Statistics from 1857 to 1871, and from 1871 to 1882—The two

following Tables exhibit in a summary form some of the more important results of collegiate education from 1857 to *882 :—

Collegiate Education in 185J—1870-ji.

PROVINCE.	NUMBER OF ENGLISH ABTS COLLEGES DOING IN 1857-1870-71.	NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO PASSED THE F.A., B.A., AND M.A. EXAMINATIONS.			TOTAL.
		F.A.	B.A.	M.A.	
Madras	127	84	152	6	
Bombay	42	44	116	28	
Bengal	17	1,495	548	112	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	9	96	26	5	
Punjab	1	47	8	...	
TOTAL	46	2,666	850	151	

Collegiate Education in 18J1-J2—1881-82.

PROVINCE.	NUMBER OF ENGLISH ABTS COLLEGES DOING IN 1871-73-1881-83.	NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO PASSED THE F.A., B.A., AND M.A. EXAMINATIONS.			TOTAL.
		F.A.	B.A.	M.A.	
Madras	25	2,032	890	22	
Bombay	6	709	340	34	
Bengal	22	2,666		285	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	9	35	130	33	
Punjab*	12	7	37	11	
Central Provinces	1	90	...		
TOTAL	65	5,691	2,434	35	

* Passes in the Calcutta University only are shown in this table. Honours in degrees gained in the Punjab University College and University are excluded.

304. The Scope and Character of collegiate Instruction.—In scope and character, collegiate instruction is now almost uniform throughout India. Purely Oriental colleges must, of course, be excepted. These, however, are so few in number that they scarcely enter into a consideration of collegiate education in its modern development. With the exception, indeed, of the Oriental College at Lahore, and of the Oriental department of the Canning College, Lucknow, they are but relics of that order of things which existed previous to the publication of Lord William Bentinck's famous Resolution. The college of to-day aims at giving an education that shall fit its recipient to take an honourable share in the administration of the country, or to enter with good hope of success the various liberal professions now expanding in vigorous growth. It follows, therefore, that the advancement of learning in India is in a large measure through science, and altogether according to the scientific method. The English and Oriental classics, of course, occupy an important place in the college scheme ; but, apart from the refinement of character and elevation of thought which are incidental to their study, their chief function is to discipline the intellect. In history, philosophy, mathematics, and physical science, English is the medium of instruction and the passport to academic honours. The dialectics of Hindu philosophy and the subtleties of

Muhammadan law have naturally disappeared from a course of studies intended to be of so practical a character; the profound scholarship and lifelong devotion to learning which India once boasted, are sacrifices made to the appreciation of an active career. Few regrets are felt on this score, though there are those who hold that the present exclusive use of English is neither beneficial nor necessary. Through the vernaculars, to some extent already and largely in the near future, they believe that general knowledge of the higher kind might be imparted, and that an education of wider national profit would be the certain result. Meanwhile we are dealing with things as they are.

305. Duration of College Courses, and Standards of Examination.—

In Bengal, the college course extends over five years from matriculation to the M.A. degree. In Madras, there is a course of four years up to the B.A. degree, and those who appear for the M.A. examination commonly spend at least two years more in study, though none of the colleges have regular classes beyond the B.A. standard. In Bombay, three years is the period; but, on the other hand, the school course is one year longer, and the Entrance examination of a somewhat more difficult character. The usual age at which an Indian student seeks admission to the University is between sixteen and eighteen years. Having by that time completed the high school course, he is examined by means of printed papers (and, in the Bombay and Punjab Universities, orally) in English, a classical or vernacular language, history, geography, mathematics, and, in Madras and Bombay, in elementary physical science. The exact standard in each of these subjects need not be stated here. But, roughly speaking, the knowledge required is about that which at the age of sixteen an English boy of average intelligence will be found to possess. Success in this examination admits a student to any of the affiliated colleges. There, after attendance for two years (for one year in Bombay), he is permitted to present himself for the First Examination in Arts, or the Previous Examination as it is styled in Bombay. At the Calcutta University the subjects of examination are English, a classical language (Oriental or European), history, mathematics, logic, and either psychology or elementary chemistry. In Madras, human physiology holds the place of logic, psychology, or chemistry in the Calcutta course. In Bombay the scheme is identical with that in Calcutta, except that natural science takes the place of the optional subject. Two years later again (in Bombay there is an intermediate examination) comes the examination for the B.A. degree. Of this examination it may be as well to give the exact subjects taken up in 1882 by undergraduates of the Calcutta University, the standard being almost precisely the same in the three Universities. Those subjects in the two alternative courses, which correspond with the courses for the B.A. and the B.Sc. of the Bombay University, were as follows:—

A. COURSE.

J.—Languages.

- (a) *English*.—King Lear, Julius Caesar, Merchant of Venice: Paradise Lost, books III to VI: Hyperion: Burke's Reflections on the French Revolution: Morley's Life of Burke: Church's Spenser (English Men of Letters): Stopford Brooke's Primer of English Literature.
- (b) One of the following languages:—
- Greek*.—The Philoctetes and the De Corona.
- Latin*.—Georgics, III and IV: Pro Cluentio: Germania.

Sanskrit.—Kumar Sambhava I-VII: Mesghaduta: Sakuntala.

Sebrew.—Deuteronomy; Psalms, I-XII; Isaiah, I-XXXIX; Daniel, I-VII; Proverbs.

Arabic.—Tarikh-i-Yamani: Hamasah, Mutanabi.

Persian.—Veqai Niamat Khan Ali (the first-half): Durra*i-Nadiri (50 pages): Qasaid Khaqani (50 pages): Qasaid Badax Chachi (5° Pages).

Tali.—Kacchayano: Abhidhamma Sangaha.

II.—Mixed, Mathematics.

Mechanics; Hydrostatics, Hydraulics, and Pneumatics; Astronomy, Descriptive (as distinguished from Practical and Physical Astronomy); the Solar System, Phenomena of Eclipses.

III and IV.

Two of the following three subjects marked (a), (&), and (c)

(a)

1. Mental Philosophy, Hamilton's Lectures;

2. Moral Philosophy, as in Fleming;

or

2. Butler's Analogy, Part I; Dissertation on Virtue, Sermons, I, II, III;

or

2. Logic, as in Fowler's Inductive Logic;

(b)

1/ History of England, Green's Short History;

2. History of India, during the Hindu, Muhammadan, and British periods down to 1885;

S. Arnold's Lectures on Modern History;

or

3. Mill on Representative Government;

or

3. The History of the Jews, from the beginning of the monarchy to the Destruction of Jerusalem by Titus;

(c)

Algebra* Plane Trigonometry (as laid down in the course for Honours), Analytical Conic Sections.

B. Course.

I.—English, as in the A Course:

II.—Mathematics, as II of the A Course:

III.—Inorganic Chemistry, as in Roscoe:

IV.—Physical Geography, and one of the following to be selected by the candidate:—

(a) Acoustics, Thermotics, Optics, Magnetism, Electricity (as in Ganot),

(b) General Physiology, Animal Physiology, Zoology.

(c) General Physiology, Vegetable Physiology, Botany.

(d) Geology, Mineralogy, Palaeontology.

306. Subjects for the M.A. Degree.—The B.A. degree is followed by the M.A. degree. Here the examination is practically confined to one or other of the following branches of knowledge: (1) Languages; (2) History; (3) Mental and Moral Philosophy; (4) Mathematics, pure and mixed; (5) Natural and Physical Science. At Calcutta the candidate is allowed to take up one or more of these branches either in the same or in different years; in Madras and Bombay a classical language (Oriental or European) is coupled with English, and Philosophy with History and Political Economy. With the M.A. degree the college course comes to an end, though in the Calcutta University the Premchand Uoychand Studentship is the final goal of academic distinction. Even to the M.A. degree only a very small proportion of students have hitherto persevered. Thus, in 1881-82, the successful candidates in the various examinations were as follows :—

	First Arts or Previous Examination.	B.A.	M.A.
Calcutta	356	105	32
Madras	366	125	5
Bombay	71	36	3
TOTAL	793	266	40

307. Grades of Colleges and tutional Staff.—The affiliated colleges are of two grades; those whose students go no further than the First Arts, or Previous Examination, and those in which they proceed to the B.A. and M.A. degrees. The strength of the teaching staff varies with the wealth of the institution, the number of the students, and the class of examinations for which candidates are sent up. Thus the Presidency College in Calcutta has a Principal, eleven Professors, and two teachers of Sanskrit and Arabic. This staff provides for lectures being given in all the various subjects of all the examinations. A smaller college will be content with a Principal, two Professors, a Pandit, and a Maulavi; but with no larger staff than this, restrictions are necessary as to the choice of subjects in the alternative courses, and but little help can be afforded to students reading for the M.A. degree.

308. Boarding-Houses.—In their scheme of discipline, and in the academic life of their students, Indian colleges have but little analogy with those of the older of the English Universities, their resemblance being closer to those of Scotland and Germany. B/esidence in college buildings is not only not generally compulsory, but the colleges are few in which any systematic provision is made for control over the students' pursuits out of college hours. Boarding-houses are, indeed, attached to certain institutions, and their number increases year by year. But, unless the student's home be at a distance from the collegiate city and he have no relatives to receive him, it is seldom that he will incur the expense which residence involves. Two principal reasons account for this feature in our system. First, the initial outlay upon buildings is one from which Government and independent bodies alike shrink. For so poor is the Indian student that it would be impossible to demand of him any but the most moderate rent—a rent perhaps barely sufficient to cover the cost of the annual repairs. The second obstacle lies in the religious and social prejudices which fence class from class. Not only does the Hyidu refuse to eat with

the Musalman, but from close contact with whole sections of his own co-religionists he is shut off by the imperious ordinances of caste. Experience, however, has already proved that the barriers of custom are giving way. In the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab, where the residential system has been widely tried, the success has been considerable; and nothing but want of funds stands in the way of a fuller development. In the more important Bombay colleges, also, a considerable number of the students are in residence; in Bengal and Madras the system has been less fully recognised. Tet it is the one thing which will give the Departmental officer a hold upon the lives of those whose intellects he trains with such sedulous elaboration. Prom any attempt to touch the religious side of the student's character, the Government Educational officer is debarred by the principle of religious neutrality. All the more important therefore is it that he should be able to exercise the moral influence of a close and watchful discipline.

309. Oriental Colleges.—We have mentioned purely oriental colleges." Of such, strictly speaking, there now-a-days remain but three, *viz.*, the Oriental College at Lahore, the Oriental Department of the Canning College, Lucknow, and the Sanskrit Department of the Benares College. In the two former, Sanskrit, Arabic, and Persian literature are the subjects of instruction; at Benares, Sanskrit alone. The once purely Oriental colleges in Calcutta now include in their studies a certain admixture of English. Thus in the Sanskrit College, though the cultivation of Sanskrit scholarship is the main object, students are also prepared in all the subjects of the First Arts Course of the Calcutta University: in the Madrasa, side by side with the Arabic Department, in which Arabic and Persian Literature, Logic, Rhetoric, and Muhammadan Law are taught to some two hundred students, is the Anglo-Persian Department with twice that number reading for the Matriculation Examination. The four Madrasas established from the income of the Mohsin Endowment Fund teach in their highest or "collegiate" classes a course in Arabic identical in standard with that of the Calcutta Madrasa; and the pupils in all the five Madrasas are subjected yearly to a central examination.

310. Collegiate Education in 1882,—Of the nine following Tables, No. I gives particulars as to the number of colleges throughout India in 1881-82, ^{as} **compared** with those existing in 1871-72, and their attendance of students; No. II, the race or caste of those students, divided into Hindus, Musalmans, Europeans or Eurasians, Native Christians, Sikhs, Parsis, and others; No. III, the results of the University examinations in Arts; No. IV, the number of undergraduates studying optional languages; No. V, the number graduating in a literary and in a scientific course, respectively, in those Universities in which such a distinction exists; No. VI, the expenditure on education in Arts Colleges; No. VII, the average annual cost of educating each student; No. VIII, the statistics of fees; No. IX, an estimate of the number of graduates from collegiate institutions who between 1871 and 1882 joined (a) the Public service; or, in a private capacity, (S) the Legal, (c) the Medical, (d) the Civil Engineering professions.

TABLE No. I.

Comparative Statistics of Attendance in Arts Colleges (a) for the official years 1870-71 and 1881-82.

PROVINCES.	1870-71.								1881-82.								REMARKS.	
	DEPARTMENTAL		AIDED		UK AIDED		TOTAL		DEPARTMENTAL		AIDED		UNAIDED		TOTAL			
	ED fao *3 0	Students.	OO U)	to 1 Efl	to 1 Efl	m 1 CO	to o	to <2	to CO	m e CO	to 8	Students.	m e o a	m a m	to u	Students.		
i	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
MADRAS	5	288	6	130	H 1	II	418	X O	7 4	21 I	8 0 3	3	1 2	42 4	1,669		* Including 6 matriculated pupils (girls) in the College Department of the Bethune School, and 23 non-matriculated students in the Sanskrit College reading for the title examination.	
BOMBAY	3	250	2	47	5	297	3	311	2	139	1	25	6	475	t Exclusive of the 3 matriculated students (girls) reading for the F. A. examination in the Free Church Normal School.	
BENGAL	11	980	5	394	§	**	16	1,374	12	1,305*	5	8,5t	4	538	21	2,738	t There are two other unaided colleges in this province from which no returns have been received.	
NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES AND ODDH	11 3	76	5	1*299	...	»*«	8	1,375	3	172	2	t+157		20	6	344	§ Two unaided colleges, with 24 pupils, have not been returned.	
PUNJAB	2	102	1*	t.	...		2	102	1	103	1	103	Excluding the Ajmir College, which, with its attached collegiate school, contained 246 pupils.	
CENTRAL PROVINCES	MI	...	M	1	65	1	65	If Excluding the Ajmir College and attached collegiate school, which were attended by 225 pupils.	
TOTAL FOR INDIA	24	1,696	18	1,870	11	□ □ *	42	3,566	17 30	2,698	20	9,994	9	707	59,399		** Including the pupils of attached collegiate schools. The number of under-graduates in the aided colleges of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh is roughly estimated at 80. The total number of under-graduates in the aided colleges in India in the year 1870-71 was therefore about 666.	
																		† Excluding the pupils of attached collegiate schools.
																		xx Excluding British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

(a) The statistics for Oriental Colleges are given separately in Tables Ia to 4a and are excluded from Tables 1-8.

TABLE No. II.

Classification of College Students by Race or Creed for the official year 1881*82.

PROVINCES.	DEPARTMENTAL COLLEGES.				AIDED COLLEGES.				UN-AIDED COLLEGES.				TOTAL.				REMARKS*																			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16		17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30					
Madras	704	12	1610	...	G88	IS	...	89	6	3	110	...	12	2	117	18	2	1,669						
BOMBAY	94	88	*62	...	2*	535	85	68	2*	24	...	Ij	8	75	25	88	71	...	9	68	7*	108	*12	...						
N. W. P. AND OUDH.	349	0	...	55	1	...	75	1	48	8	5	2	25	103	9	5	2	475						
PUNJAB.	80	of	>1	*93	...	17	*09	32	...	53	95	*72	34	5	5*	78	q	44	100	21	69	*6	95	42					
CENTRAL PROVINCES.	1,214	75	87	5	8	48	07	30	...	21	34	3	50	9	I	2	530	<5	...	2839	35	2,738			
	93	05	*75	...	54	38	39	0	17	3*	36	*2	3	3	39	*61	19	1*	02	*28					
	155	14	3	33	21	2	1	...	5	t	5*	22	*43	<7	...	1*	02	*28	
	90	*13	*14	...	1*	74	...	84	*13	*38	...	1*	37	11	75	5		
	84	13	3	...	3	lit	84	13	3	3	103*		
	81	*55	*63	2*	91	2	81	55	*63	*91	2*	91	
	59	5	65	
	90	*77	*69	i	90	*77	*69	
	65	125	3	55	31	15	41,703	70	48	120	46	7	<559	2	
TOTAL (INDIA.)	91	34	*63	...	12	*04
	73	*22	*36	...	62	*04

(a) Attending colleges for Natives of India.
 (b) Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

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TABLE No. III.

Remits of the Higher University Examinations in the official year 1881-82.

PROVINCE AND CLASS OF COLLEGES.	M.A.		B.A.		1st B.A.		F.A.		PREVIOUS EXAMINATION Allow.*		B.So.		1st B.So.		Total Number examined.	Total number pa&Bed.	Percentage of successful candidates in all examinations.	
	Exd.	Passed.	Exd.	Passed.	2Exd.	Passed.	Exd.	Passed.	Exd.	Passed.	Exd.	Passed.	Exd.	Passed.				
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15				
I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
MADRAS			(107 178	71 48			230 258	144 5 ²		M	M	M [*] It			1857	496	57-88	
C Departmental		5					48	34										
< Aided																		
C. Unaided	19		(36	"K<5			9	32			M							
Private students												1	I					
BOMBAY	4	1	95	28	66	24			182	41	6	I		2	355	9	27-32	
r Departmental																		
< Aided	4	2	30	8	22	10			81	26	1	1		1	138	47	34-06	
C. Unaided			m				* i *		15	4		M<			i5	4	2667	
BENGAL	5	22	148	59			378	171							577	252	43-67	
f Departmental															419	108	25-78	
J Aided	18	4	100	24			304	80							49			
C. Unaided	1		M	43	8		124	36							168	44	26-19	
Private students			M	18	4		27	8					M		45	12	26-66	
NORTH WESTERN PROVINCES AND OUDH.	6	4	2	7	5	3	6	2	0						6	9	42-03	
r Departmental																		
C Aided	1		1	1	3			36	iy	3					4	8	2	
C Unaided							1	o		3			M	I	1	0	45-83	
PUNJAB	2	2	4	2				10	8								16	
Departmental																		
Aided			M															
Unaided													at*	□ * □	□ < 1			12
CENTRAL PROVINCES	1	1						17	10									58-82
Departmental																		
Aided																		
Unaided																		
Private students								1	1									100*
TOTAL SOB INDIIF	93	40	697	266	88	34	1,570	722	278	71	7	2	2	2	2,735	1,137	4-57	

* The Previous examination in Bombay takes place one year after the student has matriculated, the 1st B.A. or B.Sc. two years after matriculation, and the B.A. three years after such examination. In the Madras and Calcutta Universities the F A examination takes place two years after the Entrance Examination.

† Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

TABLE No. IV.
Number of Undergraduates studying each optional language in the official year 1881-82.

PROVINCE.	Sanskrit.	Arabic.	Persian.	Hebrew,	Greek,	Latin,	Vernacular.	REMARKS.
MADRAS.....	248	2	11		20	24	1,384	
BOMBAY.....	301	..	103		1	63		
BENGAL.....	2,196	*5	114	1H	1	125		
NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES AND OUDH	112	86	69	«»1	«	3		
PUNJAB.....	29	14	56		IM			
CENTRAL PROVINCES.....	48	..	17					
TOTAL FOR INDIA*	2,934	117	370		22	215	*>384	

* Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

TABLE No. V.
Return of Students graduating in a literary or scientific course at the Bachelor of Arts Examinations held in the official year 1881-82.

PROVINCE AND COLLEGE.	LITERARY.	SCIENTIFIC (a)		Examined.	Passed.	REMARKS.
		Examined.	Passed.			
MADRAS	Departmental Aided. 50	68	6	3	107	71
) Unaided. 78	27	28	21	78	48
	Private students	5	2	1	36	6
BOMBAY	Departmental Aided. 21	24	23	5	101	29
	(Unaided. 16	4	10	5	31	9
BENGAL	Departmental Aided. 82	16	93	43	148	59
	*) Unaided. 35	12	18	5	100	24
	Private students 112	12	8	3	43	8
NOBTH-WESTERN AND OUDH.	*) Unaided. 51	5	6	2	18	4
	Private students 51	5	22	5	27	5
PUNJAB	Departmental Aided. 4	1	10	3	11	3
	(Unaided. 2					2
TOTAL FOR INDIA*		478	172	226	704	268

(a) The figures for Bombay include students who graduated in a purely or partly scientific course. In Madras and Benpul, there is no distinction made between literary and scientific students. Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

TABLE No. VI.

Expenditure on Education in Arta Colleges in the official year 188J-82.

PROVING AND OBJECTS OF EXPS NI> ITU ,	DEPARTMENTAL COLLEGER.				AIDED COLLEGES.				UNAXDED COLLEGES.			TOTAL.		16	17	18	19	20	21	
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14							
• -{BSSSSS*!	1 >30,246 4,693	28,435	1,190 2,821	150,871 7,514	20,399 2,740	20,495	45>347	86,241 *74°	3>2°5	7,126	10,331	1,50,645 7,433	5V35	53,663 2,821	12,56,443 *0,*54	^ *6,32,345	f9*3 v ^	56^49 *79	*534 -75	7*4°
TOTAL	*3,4939	*8,435		*.67,385	*3>*38	*0,495	45,347	88,981	3.*05	7,1*5	10,33*	*.58,078	S*,i35	56,484	2,66,697	...	968	5928	16 09	7^69t
[Establishments BOMBAY » , , -<c and buildings . L.Scholarships .	88,626 1,794	25,405	2g,081 £1,292	* 13,086	5,100	8>378	25,100 **□§	38,578 *»*	1,062	6,234 -S	*.7,296	93,726 11,794	34,845	59,4*5 1,292	i,87,986 13,1^6	19,8*,535	f4-88 1 S9	4661 ' 5 86	8^23 x 03	5^48 38
TOTAL	1,00,420	aS.4<>S	29.373		5,100	8*37	25,100	38,578	1,062	6,234	7.^6	*.05,520	34,845	60,707	2,01,072	...	547	5*47	9^26	S^85
• -{soL**+	2,55,828	1,03,831	17>>75	3,77,334 * 30	21,450	4**354	781985	1,41,785	2,077	2,965	5,042	2,77,278 83,206	1,47,262	99,625 17,803	t5,24,165 1,01,009	j. 26,80,510	□ f *o^34 J 310	44 35 i3^3*	10^48 3^*4	836 i 6x
TOTAL	z, 55,828	1,03,831	17,675	3,77,334	ar,450	4**354	78,885	r, 41,785	3,077	3,565	5,04*	3,60,484	1,47,26*	1,17,428	6,25,174	...	i3^44	57-66	13^6z	907*
N.-W. PROVINCE (Establishments f AND OUDH. i.Scholar&hps	88,733 7,972	7,117	30,021	1,*5,871 7,97*	J5^215	2,248	25,051 2,447	*.447	335	1,679	3,014	1,03,948 7,972	Q700	56,751 2,447	t^,70,399 10,419	*5,77,695 (*50	659 4^4	57*48 4^4	11a0 ' 86	829 ' 50
TOTAL	96,705	7.^7	30,0*1	i.33,843	*5,*15	2,346	*7,498	44,96*	335	1,679	1,014	1, r 1,920	9,700	59,198	1,80,818	...	7^*09	61^89	12^06	8^79t
• • -{foSi*!	45,803 6,816	2,099	<5,83D	47,900 13,655		*»*	...	*»*	...			45,803 6,816	2,099	5,839	147,9** 12,655	12,31,04:	{ %	7564 £x2\$	727 1^08	2Q4 ' 77
TOTAL	52,613	*.099	5,839	60,557		...	1_			S^,61g	2,099	5,839	60,557		4^*7	8689	835	3^7It
Central Prov- inSS. (Scholarships . buddings .	9,575 7,604	1,178 ...	10S	*0,755 72*	MI		iti	9,575 7^604	1,178	...	10,752 7.7*2	1V 5,28,80s * *44	f 1 81 * *44	5^85 41^18	2^64 2^1Z	t^60 i^x4
TOTAL	*7,*74	*,*7*	xoS	18,465				r7>*7*	M7*	10C	18,46	1 j...	3^5	9303	4-76	2^74
C Establishments	6,18,811	1,68,065	76,96	8,63,843	62,164	72,478	*.74,482		6,67	18,00	24,682	6,80,97	a,47i^* > 2,69,454	1,07,64	1, 1	r 7^10	50^33	10^20	683	
TOTAL FOR INDIA(c and buildings.																				
C Scholarships	3M7<>		10,06	48,93	*.74<		a. 44:	1 S,*85				x, 2482c	30,3^ <	61,55,* 31 J				9^23	Z 01	*88
TOTAL	6,57,69	s x,68,06j	* 87,0*	19,J^,782	64,904	7^j47.	i,26,93< > 3>14,305	6,679! 18,00	t *4,682	li 8,0s,80<	> *A 7^*	*.99,76^	Y*3.S^78	j		839	j 59^56	12^21	771	

Including expenditure on all professional and technical institutions and on schools for Europeans and Em^asianB.
t The expenditure on college buildings has not been returned by Madras, Bengal, the North-Western Provinces, and the Punjab.
X Excluding Rs. 429 from a private endowment in the Gujarath college.
§ The following expenditure on scholarships has not been returned fco the Department
Rs.
Aided collegia 1,262
Unaided colleges..... 1,08a

jj Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.
Excluding the expenditure of the Ajmir college and attached collegiate school, which amounted to Bs. 27,949.
a Including the expenditure incurred on scholarships by the Punjab University college.
b Excluding Us. 4,513 expended on college scholarships by the Educational Department ill Assam and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts.

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REPORT OF THE EDUCATION COMMISSION. [CHAP. VI.

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TABLE No. VII.

Statement showing the average annual cost (a) of educating each Student in Arts Colleges in the official year 1881-82.

PROVINCES.	DEPARTMENTAL COLLEGES.		AIDED COLLEGES.		UNAIDED COLLEGES.	REMARKS.
	Total average annual cost.	Average annual cost to Provincial Funds.	Total average annual cost.	Average annual cost to Provincial Funds.	Total average annual cost.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	<i>R a. p.</i>	<i>R a. p.</i>	<i>R a. p.</i>	<i>R a. p.</i>	<i>R a. p.</i>	
MATHIAS	2 5 7 1 32	1 8 0 1	4 2 5 2	2 8 9 9 8	9 3 1 2	
BOMBAY	44.6 12 8	274 13 0	27X 10 9	35 H 7	331 10 2	
Bengal	320 9 5	217 5 8	185 5 6	28 0 7	*48 7 8	* Only two of the four unaided colleges have furnished returns of expenditure.
NORT-WESTERN PROVINCES AND OUDH	758 4 2	534 8 6	312 9 8	11 14 0	125 14 0	
PUNJAB	* 498 15 8	477 1 10			1 1 4	
CEYLON	186 3 1	155 8 5				
Average for India(5)	354 9 1	253 9 9	178 7 7	35 14 3	97 8 2	

(a) Calculated on the average monthly income of the students enrolled.
 (A) Excluding Ajmer, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

TABLE No. VIII.

Tuition-Fees in Arts Colleges in the Official year 1881-82,

PROVINCES.	DEPARTMENTAL COLLEGES.		AIDED COLLEGE B.		UWAJED COLLEGES.		Percentage of income from Pec a to total expenditure (a) in Departmental CollegeB.	Percentage of income from Fees to total expenditure^ in Aided Colleges.	Percentage of income from Pees to total expenditure (a) in Unaided Colleges.	KEMAEXS.
	Highest Pee.	Lowest Pee.	Highest Pee.	Lowest Pee.	Highest Pee.	Lowest Fee.				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
MADRAS*.....	R 5	R 3	R a. 4 0	R 2	R 3	i.*	17*78	2376	31*02	<p>□Muhammadans and Uriyas pay half fees, and five per cent. of the students may be exempted from the payment of fees in Departmental and aided colleges alike, in Departmental colleges 5 per cent. of the pupils are exempted from the payment of fees. In Aided colleges there is no fixed limit to the exemptions. In Departmental and Unaided colleges the fees chargeable to holders of scholarships are 40 or so per cent, lower than the ordinary rates.</p> <p>fin the Sanskrit College 20 sons of pandits are allowed to read at a reduced fee of Rs. 2 instead of Rs. 5. In the Hooghly College Muhammadan students read at a fee of Re. 1 instead of Rs. 6.</p> <p>In all colleges other than Hooghly, Muhammadan students are allowed to read at one-third of the regular fees, the difference of two-thirds being paid, in the case of Departmental colleges, from the Mohsin Endowment Fund; in the case of the private colleges of Calcutta, from Provincial revenues.</p> <p>§The Provincial Committee state that it is doubtful whether the highest rate of fee here entered is ever actually paid by students. * A few undergraduates* are entirely exempted from the payment of fees.</p>
BOMBAY!	10	3	8 0	4	5	3	18*28	21*72	14*56	
BJSNOALI	12	3	6 0	5	3		27*51	29*16	41'19	
NORTHWESTERN PROVINCES AND OUDH.....	5	2	5 0	X	4	i	5'ns	5*29	16*63	
PtJNABS.....	5	2				i.	4'38	in	lit	
Central Provinces .	2	2		M*			11'09	111	~ M	
AVERAGE FOR INDIA (6)	12	2	8 0	i	5	i	19'53	23-44	27-05	

(a) Excluding the expenditure on buildings and scholarships, of which the majority of the Provinces have cut no return, (A) Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

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TABLE No. IX.

PROVINCE.	Number of graduates between 1871*82.	(c) Having entered the public service, British or Native.	(*) Legal profession.	(f) Medical profession.	(d) Civil Engineering profession.
Madras S	0 8	296	126	18	
Bombay 6	2 5	324	49	7 6	28
B e d gal	i,6g6	534	471	131	19
North-Western Provinces and Oudh 1	3 0	61	33		6
Punjab	38	21	5
Central Provinces	14	8
TOTAL	3,3ii	1,244.	684	225	53

The last tabular statement gives only a partial idea of the after-career of our Indian graduates. A statement submitted by the Registrar of the Madras University, and quoted in the Report of the Provincial Committee (page 119), shows that out of 971 students who graduated in Madras up to the 31st March 1882, 796 are known to be holding remunerative employment in fourteen or fifteen different professions. On the other hand, a letter from the Principal of the Civil Engineering College in Madras states that no graduate in Arts or Engineering who has passed through the Civil Engineering College has joined the Civil Engineering profession in a strictly private capacity between 1871 and 1882. From the Bombay Report we gather that 74 graduates of the Bombay University have found employment in Native States, and, 78 others have chosen private careers either in education or in commerce. The Reports of Bengal, the North-Western Provinces, and the Punjab, mention a certain number of graduates in private service, the numbers being respectively 180, 39, and 12. The Report of the Central Provinces can only inform us of the after-life of 14 native gentlemen who, being born in those Provinces, graduated in one of the neighbouring Universities. Seven of these serve under the British Government, and one holds an important office in Haidarabad.

311. Fees in Colleges.—In stating the main facts about the fees in colleges, it is necessary to bear in mind that in all Provinces to a certain extent, and in some Provinces to a very large extent, the scholarships awarded to a certain portion of the students enable them to pay their fees. The amount, therefore, of the fees charged in the colleges of each Province must be considered in connection with the provision made for scholarships in that Province. Also in all Provinces, except Bengal and the Central Provinces, in addition to the provision for scholarships, a greater or smaller number of the students are either wholly or in part exempted from payment of the college fees. Thus, the fee shown in the Tables as paid on the average is less, and in some cases very greatly less, than it would be if fees at the appointed rate were paid by all.

Madras.—In Madras there is a somewhat complicated arrangement by which fees at varying rates are charged according as the college is Government or aided, and according as it is situated in the Presidency town or in Mofussil towns that are regarded as backward or advanced in an educational point of

Government colleges, and its. 4 in aided colleges; the lowest Es. 3 in Government and Es. 2 in aided colleges. Muhammadans are required to pay only half the usual fee, and it is provided that the number of free scholars shall not exceed 5 per cent, of the total number on the roll in either Government or aided colleges. The average fee actually paid during the year 1881-82 was Es. 45-13 in Government colleges, and Es. 29-11 in aided. In the unaided colleges, which are under no rule in regard to fees, the average amount paid for the year by each student was Es. 29.

Bombay.—In Bombay the fees in Government colleges vary from Es. 10 a month to Es. 5 in the case of ordinary students, or to Es. 3 in the case of holders of junior scholarships. In the two aided colleges the fees are Es. 8 and Es. 6 a month. In Government colleges only five per cent, of the students on the rolls may be exempted from payment of fees. In aided colleges there is no restriction as to the number of the students that may be admitted free. The average fee actually paid in Government colleges for the year 1881-82 was Es. 81-11, and in aided colleges Es. 59.

Bengal.—In Bengal the highest fee charged is Es. 12 a month in the Presidency College. In other Government colleges it ranges from Es. 3 to Es. 6 a month. In one aided college it is Es. 6, in the others Es. 5 a month. No students are admitted free in Government or aided colleges. In unaided colleges the ordinary rate is Es. 3. The average fee actually paid in Government colleges for the year 1881-82 was Es. 88-3, and in aided colleges Es. 54. In the only unaided college which has furnished returns on this point the average fee paid for the year was Es. 31-8.

North-Western Provinces and Oudh.—In the North-Western Provinces the rate of fees is Es. 5 a month in the degree classes of Government colleges, and E£ 3 in the classes preparing for the Eirst Examination in Arts. In aided colleges the rate varies from Es. 5 to Ee. 1 a month. In Government colleges there are no exemptions from the payment of fees; and the same practice is generally followed in aided colleges, though there is no definite regulation on the point. The average fee actually paid in Government colleges for the year 1881-82 was Es. 42-14, and in aided colleges Es. 16-8.

Punjab .—In the Government College, Lahore, the only college in the Punjab for which full information is available, a uniform fee of Es. 2 a month is charged, although there is a standing order that fees from Es. 2 to 5 should be levied according to the income of the parent or guardian; and a small number of students are admitted free. The average fee actually paid for the year 1881-82 was Es. 21-14.

Central Provinces.—In the only college in the Central Provinces the rate of fee is Es. 2 a month. There are no exemptions, and the average fee actually paid in the year 1881-82 was Es. 20-10.

Summary.—It appears from this review that the fee paid in aided colleges is less by about one-third than is paid in those maintained by Government. This seems about the ratio at which it is possible for both classes of institutions to thrive. It is also the ratio that is fixed in Madras by a formal regulation.

In Government colleges fees are paid into the Treasury. In other colleges they are retained by the managers. Practically, in both cases they are a contribution towards the expense of the colleges. The extent to which they

actually meet the cost of collegiate education in the different Provinces may be shown thus:—

	Government.	Aided.
Madras	1778 per cent.	2376 per cent.
Bombay	18-28	2172
Bengal	27*51	29*16
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	5 65	5*29
Punjab.....	4'38	
Central Provinces	11 09	

The following percentages show for each Province the proportion borne by the amount raised in fees to the total expenditure on the colleges from public funds:—

	Government.	Aided.
Madras	21-83	100*47
Bombay	28-71	164-27
Bengal	4°58	19279
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	8-02	H77
Punjab	4'58	
Central Provinces	12-48	

It must be noted, however, that in the outlay from public funds in Government colleges only current expenditure controlled by the Education Department is included, no allowance being made for the cost of pensions,

312. Payment of Pees: Opinions of Witnesses—Many witnesses have discussed the question whether fees in colleges should be paid by the month or by the term. The opinion of a good many Principals and managers of colleges is in favour of payment by the term, but the opinion of the general body of witnesses against it. This mode of payment appears to have been actually tried in Arts colleges only in Bombay, where it is said to work well. Our Recommendation (No. 12) shows the decision at which we have arrived on this point. Another question that has been discussed is whether college fees should be graduated according to the means of parents or guardians. Many witnesses are in favour of this, and in the North-Western Provinces it was the universal method for several years. In one college, where, as stated above, this scheme of graduated fees prevails in theory, it has been entirely given up in practice, and the head of a college in which the system was tried at one time states that “its general effect was demoralising.” The evidence of practical experience seems, on the whole, to show that, however defensible this system may be in the abstract, it is one that it is difficult, if not impossible, to carry out in colleges that have a large number of students. Attention has been drawn by many witnesses to the practice of charging only a reduced fee to scholarship-holders, an arrangement which seems to prevail to a large extent in Bombay, and to a very limited extent in one of the colleges in Bengal. The question has also been raised whether a minimum fee should be prescribed for aided colleges, as is done in Madras and Bengal; and if so, what proportion it should bear to the fee in Government colleges. It should in any case be clearly understood that neither Government nor aided colleges are prevented from raising their fees above any minimum that may be fixed. There ought, on the contrary, to be a generous emulation between all colleges as to which should raise the fee to the highest point consistent with stability and usefulness. By the steady increase of fees till the largest attainable amount of self-support is reached, many of the problems of higher education will be practically solved. On the question as to the proper proportion of free scholars in colleges, it is at least plain that so long as any colleges are ready to exempt an unlimited

number of their *her; *k hri'e to 'm-i U'Jc* tl...: growth of t'koso *m-*
 dowments to help ... one of ■..i/., graceful a'i.iU
 useful tributes that wealth can *pay* 10 loaning*.

313 Arts College Scholarships .—Most colleges, if not all, have scholar-
 ships which are their own exclusive property, having originated from private
endowments or subscriptions. Thus, the Presidency College, Calcutta, has
 Rs 4 Soo a year of endowed scholarships; and the other endowed scholarship
 funds! attached to different colleges in Bengal, yield an income of Rs. 6,452 a
 year, exclusive of University scholarships, and also of the Mohsin
 SiJ£ B.. 9. »o . yea, Th, ElpbJtone College, Bombay, ha,
 endowed scholarships to the amount of Es. 6,360 a year, and the colleges of
 the North-Western Provinces together about the same amount. The Aligarh
 College also is richly endowed in this respect. But regarding scholarships of
 this class there is no full information before the Commission, and the only
 scholarships that can be adequately dealt with here are those that are paid from
 funds managed by the Education Department and those that belong to the
 Universities but are held in the Arts colleges affiliated to them. There is a
 striking difference in the amount spent on college scholarships in the various
 Provinces. The following is the amount of funds controlled by the Education
 Department that is spent in each Province on college scholarships, and the pro-
 portion which the sum thus expended bears to the whole amount spent from all
 sources on education of every kind :—

	S	Percentage of total expenditure.
Madras	10,254	. '29
Bombay .	13,086	. *38
Bengal	1,01,009*	. r6r
North-Western Provinces	7,97 2	- *50
Punjab	12,655	. . '77
Central Provinces	7,712	. 1 *14

Madras—In Madras, i 5 Government scholarships of Us. 15 a month
 are given on the results of the First Examination in Arts. They are thus
 apportioned: There are 13 out of the 22 Districts that have second-grade
 colleges, and a scholarship is given to the student who stands highest on the
 University list from each of these Districts. One scholarship is given to the
 Muhammadan student and one to the Uriya student who stands highest in the
 University list. These scholarships are tenable at any first-grade college in the
 Presidency for the two years between the E.A. and B.A. examinations.
 Twenty Government scholarships of Es. 10 a month are given on the
 results of the Matriculation Examination. These are tenable for four years,
 at any college in the Presidency, provided the holder pass the Eirst Exa-
 mination in Arts at the end of two years, and are thus apportioned: One is
 given to the student who stands highest from each of the eight Districts that
 have no college of either grade, six are given to students of one particularly
 backward District, and six are reserved for Muhammadans from any District.
 The University disposes of three scholarships tenable at Arts colleges, all
 of which are restricted to natives of certain Districts. There is also a system
 in virtue of which the first twenty at the E.A. examination and the first
 twenty at the Matriculation examination, if they have failed to receive stipend-
 iary scholarships, may be admitted free into any Government, or, with the
 sanction of the managers, into any aided, college. Concerning this, the Pro-
 vincial Committee remark: “ It certainly seems that it would be fairer—in

* Inclusion of Rs. 12,000 for scholarships attached to the Medical and Engineering Colleges.

“ every way better—if rewards given by Government were given impartially to ^{iC} all schools, and if, instead of free scholarships, an allowance equivalent to the “fee were made, which the pupil enjoying it might draw whether he attended “a Government or non-Government institution.”

Bombay.—In Bombay, the Scholarship Fund controlled by the Education Department is thus apportioned: There are two annual scholarships of Es. 20 a month restricted to Sind students, and tenable for four years. These seem to be the only scholarships of this class that may be held at any college preferred by the holder. In the Elphinstone College there are 45 scholarships of the aggregate value of Es. 660 a month. Of this amount, Es. 530, though administered by the Education Department, are the proceeds of private endowments, and only Es. 130 are directly contributed from Provincial Funds. In the Deccan College the aggregate Government expenditure on scholarships is Es. 275 a month. The Provincial Committee consider that the circumstances under which this large provision was made by Government for scholarships restricted to these two colleges, were such that it might be regarded unfair to throw them open to other colleges now, and they recommend no change except “that as far as practicable they should be awarded to poor students who, but “ for the stipends, might be unable to continue their studies at college.” Mr. Wordsworth, however, the Principal of the Elphinstone College, says in his evidence: “ I think it would be more fair if the money which the Government “ devotes to college scholarships were open to general competition, or given away ^{cc} in connection with the University examinations. The successful candidates “ should have the choice of joining any college for which they felt a preference. “This is a point on which I can understand that the aided colleges may feel ^{cc} that they are not quite fairly treated.” The Bombay University disposes of fifteen endowed scholarships tenable at any affiliated Arts College. Their aggregate value is Es. 451 a month. Seven are restricted to special Districts, and some of the others are for the encouragement of special studies. Some are held for one year only, but most for a longer term.

Bengal.—In Bengal, there are provided from public funds 49 scholarships awarded on the results of the First Examination in Arts. Ten of these, of the value of Es. 25 a month, are given to the students who stand highest at the examination. The remaining 39, each of the value of Es. 20 a month, are distributed among the colleges of particular Districts. There are also 152 scholarships awarded on the results of the Matriculation Examination. Ten of these, of the value of Es. 20 a month, are given to the students who stand highest at the examination. The remainder, *viz.*, 47 of the value of Es. 15 a month, and 95 of the value of Pus. 10 a month, are distributed to each Division and District in some proportion to the average number of candidates, and with reference to the educational advancement of the locality. All scholarships, except a few which must be held at a college in the District to which the student belongs, may be held at any affiliated college where instruction is given in the subjects of the examination for which the holder is preparing. Provision is further made for paying two-thirds of the fee of every Muhammadan student in whatever college he may be studying. The fund from which this provision is made, though managed by the Department, is derived from a private endowment. Of the 2, 738 students in the colleges of Bengal, 402 may be holders of scholarships provided directly by the State, in addition to those who hold scholarships originally derived from private sources. The University of Calcutta awards five scholarships tenable at Arts colleges. They are all held for one year, and their aggregate value is

Es. 112 a month. Of the total amount spent upon scholarships in Bengal, Rs. 17,803 are derived from endowments.

North-Western Provinces.—In the North-Western Provinces scholarships tenable at any college in the Province are awarded on the results of the **Matriculation**, First Arts, and B.A. Examinations. Their number is not fixed, but they are not to be more than one fourth the number of candidates **successful** in these examinations, and they are given only to students who pass in the first class. In 1881-82, fifty-nine Government scholarships, aggregating Rs. 5,094, and Local scholarships to the value of Rs. 5,754, were held by students in the various colleges, Government and non-Government.

Punjab. —In the Punjab* scholarships of Rs. 12 a month are given from State funds to one-fourth of those who pass the Entrance Examination of the Punjab University, and scholarships of Rs. 16 a month to those who pass with credit the Proficiency, or Intermediate, Examination. Up to the end of 1881-82 these scholarships were tenable only in a Government college, but they are now open to any other college in the Province. In the year 1881-82 a sum of Rs. 12,655 was drawn in scholarships of all kinds by students of the Lahore College. Of the 103 students attending it, 76 were scholarship-holders, and only 27 non-stipendiary. In the Oriental College, as a rule, all the students hold scholarships, which are paid partly from the general funds of the University, and partly from endowments at its disposal. The sum thus spent in 1881-82 was Rs. 5,933. The fact should be noted that the Punjab colleges have depended always upon a system of scholarships, which is inconsistent with the declared policy of the Government of India. A few years after the establishment of the Government colleges exception was taken by that Government to the high cost of educating students who were paid for their attendance, and the proportion of scholarships was limited as stated above.

Central Provinces.—In the Central Provinces, junior scholarships tenable at the only college in the Province are assigned yearly on the results of the Matriculation Examination. They vary in amount from Rs. 7 to Rs. 10 according to place in the University list, and the District from which the student comes. Thus residents in Jabalpur, where the college is situated, draw the lowest rate. Senior scholarships are given on the results of the F. A. examination, and are tenable at any college in India where the holder can carry on his studies to a higher stage. Their value is Rs. 20 a month for a student who passes in the first class and Rs. 15 for one who passes in the second. The sum spent on scholarships in 1881-82 was Rs. 7*955 ; Rs. 5,419 on students at Jabalpur, and Rs. 2,536 on those in other colleges. Of the 65 undergraduates at Jabalpur, 51 held scholarships.

314. Social Position of Students .—As regards the social position of the students, it would appear from the returns given in the Provincial Reports, that a very considerable majority belong to the middle classes. Among these, the sons of Government officials, as might be expected, largely preponderate over any other section of the community. The great landed proprietors are scarcely, if at all, represented; trade and commerce contribute something like one in ten; in Madras about one-third are put down as the sons of farmers or landholders; in Bengal the incomes of more than half the parents are assessed at sums varying from £20 to £200 a year. Further particulars in various forms will be found in the Provincial Reports, but these, as there given, do not admit of any uniform classification.

315- Colleges and their Staff—A general view of the different grades of colleges has already been given : we here subjoin fuller particulars,

Madras.—In Madras there are six first-grade colleges, three Government and three aided; and eighteen second-grade colleges, seven being Government, eight aided, and three unaided. In first-grade colleges, the largest staff is seven Professors and one Assistant Professor; and the smallest, one Professor and three Assistant Professors. In second-grade colleges the staff consists in all cases of one Professor and one Assistant Professor. This staff does not, however, include the Pandits or Munshis who are employed to teach the various second languages. In some colleges there are as many as eleven of these; but in most cases, or probably in all, they do duty in the school departments as well as in the colleges.

Bombay.—In Bombay there are four first-grade colleges, two Government and two aided; and two second-grade colleges, one Government and one maintained by the Kolhapur State. In first-grade colleges the largest staff is eight Professors and nine subordinate officers who give a portion of their time to college work as lecturers, Pandits, or instructors in some special subjects, for example, in drawing. The smallest staff consists of four Professors and one Assistant Professor, with four officers whose time is partly given to the college. In both the second-grade colleges the staff consists of three Professors and an assistant whose time is partly given to the college.

Bengal.—In Bengal there are eleven first-grade colleges, seven Government, three aided, and one unaided ; and ten second-grade colleges (exclusive of the College Department of the Bethune Female School), four Government, two aided, and four unaided. In first-grade colleges the largest staff is eleven Professors, besides three Professors who teach the second languages; and the smallest is two Professors, one Assistant Professor, and two lecturers. In second-grade colleges the largest staff consists of three Professors with three assistants; and the smallest (excluding one college which is not yet in full work), one Professor with three assistants.

North-Western Provinces.—In the North-Western Provinces there are six first-grade colleges, three Government, two aided and one unaided, and one second-grade college, which is unaided. The Agra College, here reckoned as a Government college, is now being placed on the aided footing. The largest staff consists of four Professors with one Assistant Professor; and the smallest, of three Professors with three teachers of the second languages. The second-grade college has a staff of four Professors, but two of these give only a portion of their time to work in the college.

Punjab. —In the Punjab there is but one college in regard to which detailed information has been obtained. It is of the first grade, and is maintained by Government. Its staff consists of four Professors, with two assistants and two teachers of the second languages. There are also the Oriental College in which the teaching staff consists- in part of stipendiary fellows and scholars ; and the Delhi Missionary College officered by the gentlemen of the Cambridge Mission with two or three native assistants who are also masters in the school Department.

Central Provinces.—In the Central Provinces there is but one college. It is of the second grade, and is maintained by Government. Its staff consists of three Professors with four assistants; but all these gentlemen devote a portion of their time to the high school connected with the college.

Summary.—By far the strongest staff is that of the Presidency College, Calcutta, with eleven Professors and one Assistant Professor. Next come the Elphinstone College, Bombay, with eight Professors; and the Madras Presidency College with six Professors and one Assistant Professor. As a rule, the staff is considerably larger in Government than in non-Government colleges; but St. Xavier's College, Bombay, has ten Professors, and St. Xavier's, Calcutta, nine. It is understood, however, that most of these gentlemen give only a portion of their time to the colleges with which they are connected. Three non-Government colleges in Calcutta have each nine Professors and assistants, but whether their whole time is given to college work does not appear. Elsewhere, the staff of non-Government colleges is considerably smaller.

316. Salaries Of Professors—Information can be given with precision as to the salaries of Professors in Government colleges, but some aided colleges have supplied no information upon this point, and in one or two of the cases where information is supplied, it is not clear whether a deduction has or has not been made for extra collegiate work. A special difficulty arises also in the case of colleges maintained by the Jesuit Fathers, from the fact that regular salaries are not paid to their Professors. On this account no statement of salaries has been received from St. Xavier's College in Bombay; and the statements furnished by St. Xavier's College in Calcutta and St. Joseph's at Negapatam, are understood to be estimates of the salaries the Professors might receive if they were employed in colleges where regular salaries are paid. In stating the main facts concerning salaries of Professors, the salaries of all Assistants are left out of view, as these range from full Assistant Professors who are virtually Professors in all but name, to gentlemen who receive a small compensation for a single hour's work daily, or it may be even less. The main facts, with these explanations, may be stated as follows.

Madras.—In Madras, in Government colleges of the first grade, the highest salary is Rs. 1,250 a month, and the lowest Rs. 750. In aided colleges of the first grade, the highest salary is Rs. 450 and the lowest Rs. 365. In Government colleges of the second grade the highest salary is Rs. 500 and the lowest Rs. 165. In aided colleges of the second grade, the highest salary is Rs. 400 and the lowest Rs. 200. In unaided colleges the highest salary is Rs. 425 and the lowest Rs. 350.

Bombay.—In Bombay, in Government colleges of the first grade, the highest salary is Rs. 1,500 a month, and the lowest Rs. 200. In aided colleges of the first grade, the highest salary is Rs. 400 a month, and the lowest Rs. 70. In second grade colleges, one of which is partly maintained by the British Government and the other by the Kolhapur State, the highest salary is Rs. 800 a month, and the lowest Rs. 250.

Bengal.—In Bengal, in Government colleges of the first grade, the highest salary is Rs. 1,500, and the lowest Rs. 300. In aided colleges of the first grade, the highest salary is Rs. 610 and the lowest Rs. 75. In unaided colleges of the first grade the highest salary is Rs. 225, and the lowest Rs. 60. In Government colleges of the second grade, the highest salary is Rs. 900, and the lowest Rs. 150. In aided colleges of the second grade, the highest salary is Rs. 350 and the lowest about Rs. 70. For unaided colleges of the second grade detailed figures have not been obtained, but the salaries are believed to be on a somewhat lower scale than those in the unaided first-grade colleges.

North-Western Provinces.—In the North-Western Provinces, in Gov-

eminent colleges of the first grade, the highest salary is Rs. 1,250 and the lowest Rs. 200, In aided colleges of the first grade, the highest salary is Rs. 1,000, and the lowest Rs. 175. For the unaided colleges no figures have been obtained.

Punjab.—In the Punjab, in the only college for which detailed information is available, the highest salary is Rs. 1,250, and the lowest Rs. 500.

Central Provinces In the Central Provinces, in the Government college, which is of the second grade, the highest salary is Rs. 500 and the lowest Rs. 180.

Summary*—Of first-grade colleges maintained by Government, the total expense varies from Rs. 1,20,498 per annum, which is the gross annual outlay on the Presidency College in Calcutta, through Rs. 92,472 on the Elphinstone College in Bombay, and Rs. 68,875 on the Presidency College in Madras, down to Rs. 16,662 at Rajshahye in Bengal. Of aided first-grade colleges, the expense ranges from Rs. 41,383, the annual outlay on the Canning College at Lucknow, down to St. Xavier's in Bombay, which costs annually but Rs. 12,000. The total annual cost of second-grade colleges maintained by Government varies from Rs. 20,626 per annum in the Sanskrit College at Calcutta down to Rs. 3,646 per annum at Madura; while the annual outlay on aided colleges of the second grade ranges from Rs. 13,287 in the London Mission Institution at Bhowanipore down to Rs. 2,738 in the Hindu College at Yizagapatam. This great variation in the expense of colleges springs from various causes. One is the different degrees in which the staff of each consists of the graduates of Indian Universities, who are naturally obtainable at a cheaper rate than graduates from Europe. The question how far Indian graduates should be employed as Professors is one on which widely different opinions are held by witnesses, and on a point of this kind it is obviously impossible to lay down a rule. That they may be, safely employed more generally than hitherto has been the case in the great Government colleges at the Presidency towns, we have no doubt: on the other hand, every encouragement should be given to the employment of European graduates in colleges under native management. The variation in expense arises partly also from the large salaries paid to some of the European Professors in Government colleges; and to these large salaries some of our witnesses have raised objections. But from the point of view of academic standing the Professors as a body certainly deserve salaries as high as any that are given. The graded service, with liberal rates of pay, was instituted with the express object of attracting distinguished graduates from the English Universities, and thus of entrusting the higher education of Indian students to a body of men whose position and attainments would ensure work of a high degree of excellence. Nor has experience failed to bear out the expectation entertained; for education in India owes a great debt to the zeal and ability of the many distinguished men who have attached themselves to its service. At the same time it may be fully admitted that if Government colleges are in all respects to be a model to the native colleges that ought to spring up around them, they must be conducted on principles of strict economy; and from this point of view it is clear that efforts should be made to provide suitable men at the most economical rates consistent with the maintenance of full efficiency. Yet another cause of the variation of expense is the different amount of actual teaching given by Professors in different colleges. It is plain that this varies considerably in different Provinces and different colleges, but the information afforded is not sufficient to determine what the limits of variation are. In the several Provincial Reports will be

found complete lists of the staff of each college and of the salary attached to each professorship.

317. College Libraries, and the Extent to which they are used —

Madras—The Report of the Madras Provincial Committee gives (page 116) the number of books for each college library; but the figures, though taken from official returns, seem, in some cases, to fall short of the real number. It is hardly credible that the S. P. G. first-grade college at Tanjore has only five books in its library, while the S. P. G. second-grade college at Trichinopoly has 1,120. The number of books in the library of St. Joseph's College is not 600, but approximates to 2,000, as may be seen from its printed catalogue. The best furnished library among the Government institutions is that of the Presidency College, which contains 3,289 volumes, and receives from Government an annual grant of Rs. 1,000. The Christian College, an aided institution, has 3,105. Only two aided colleges have ever received any grant for their libraries. In the last-mentioned college there is an arrangement which is worthy of notice and of imitation. Some 700 of the volumes are books of reference and are arranged as a consulting library to which the students have access the whole day and also on holidays. The fact mentioned in the Provincial Report that there are about 1,000 references a year shows how greatly the privilege is valued. No plan seems better fitted to encourage students to rely upon their own exertions.

Bombay.—All the Government colleges in Bombay have libraries. Those of the Elphinstone and Deccan colleges are of considerable value and receive annual additions, Rs. 500 being spent on purchases of new books every year. The two aided institutions, the Free General Assembly's and St. Xavier's, have also their libraries. But the former contains mainly works of theological literature, and the latter is chiefly for the use of the Professors.

Bengal.—The Presidency College, which for many years has received a monthly grant of Rs. 300, has accumulated a comprehensive library of modern literature in all branches of knowledge. Annual grants, varying from Rs. 300 to Rs. 400 a year, are given with the same object to six other Government colleges of the first grade, and smaller sums to second grade colleges. No mention is made in the Report of the Bengal Committee of libraries in aided colleges, from which, however, it should not be concluded that they have none worthy of notice. St. Xavier's College library, for instance, is supplied with a large number of well-selected books.

North-Western Provinces.—The libraries of the Government colleges in the North-Western Provinces are excellent. There are libraries too, though not quite so considerable, in the aided institutions.

Punjab.—The library at the Lahore Government College contains about 1,400 books on all branches of literature, both English and European. The Oriental section is poor, and is said to contain much that is valueless.

Central Provinces.—The college library at Jabalpur possesses upwards of 1,000 volumes, many of which, however, are said to be but ill-suited for the students and to be seldom used by them.

Summary.—As regards the extent to which college libraries are used, the information obtained seems to show that among the students of some colleges a perceptible taste for general reading has sprung up. Yet, the Bombay, the

Bengal and the North-Western Provinces Reports agree in saying that the general reading of students is confined to a very narrow range, being almost entirely limited to the books which have some bearing on the subjects of examinations; though an exception to a limited extent is made in Bombay in the case of the students of the Elphinstone college. In Bengal, it is expected that the new scheme of studies, which is to come into force in 1884, will help to develop among the best students a taste for private reading.

318. Laboratories and Apparatus for Instruction: Madras—The value of the laboratories and apparatus for instruction in the colleges of the Province of Madras is given at page 117 of the Provincial Report, and is, on an average, much lower in most Government than in non-Government institutions. Moreover, nothing is said of the laboratories and apparatus of the two principal Government colleges, *viz.*, the Kombakonum and the Presidency Colleges, though the Commission, when sitting in Madras, was able to satisfy itself that the latter is well supplied with appliances for physical and chemical instruction and for the study of natural science, &c. Seven of the aided colleges received grants from Government. It may be observed that grants for apparatus required for instruction in science or art are given only once in Madras.

Bombay.—In Bombay the Elphinstone College and the two aided colleges are fairly equipped with scientific apparatus, for which the last two received of late a grant of Rs. 3,000 from Government. But the Deccan and the Rajaram Colleges are insufficiently provided, while the Gujarat College has no apparatus at all. And it may be said that not a single college in the Province of Bombay is furnished with a set of appliances altogether commensurate with the requirements of the science course newly adopted by the University.

Bengal.—In Bengal four Government colleges are reported to be well supplied with chemical and physical laboratories. That of the Presidency College is thoroughly complete. All other Government institutions possess what is strictly necessary for imparting instruction. When the alternative courses in science were adopted, the sum of Rs. 5,000 was allotted to each first-grade Government college for the purchase of scientific apparatus, and many additional grants have since been made. The Report of Bengal makes no mention of any laboratory in aided colleges. Yet the Revd. Father Lafont states in his evidence that St. Xavier's College has a collection of apparatus which he considers one of the best in Calcutta, and the value of which he estimates at Rs. 20,000. He adds that liberal grants have occasionally been given to that institution by Government for the purchase of instruments.

North-Western Provinces.—In the North-Western Provinces, the Allahabad, Agra, and Benares Government colleges, and the aided Canning College at Lucknow, have laboratories.

Punjab.—The Lahore College has as yet no special laboratory; but the acquisition of one has been sanctioned. It is sufficiently provided with apparatus for Physics and Chemistry for instruction up to the BA. standard, and has a fairly complete cabinet of specimens in Geology.

Central Provinces.—The college at Jabalpur has only a small set of chemical apparatus. Application has been made for the purchase of a complete set of apparatus for teaching Physical Science.

319. Oriental Colleges.—Of the general character and objects of these colleges, an account has already been given. It must be remembered, however, that in their course of studies they are far from uniform. In some, such

as the Calcutta Madrasa, there is an admixture of English; in others, such as the Oriental Department of the Canning College, Lucknow, the Oriental methods of teaching are still observed. Not being affiliated to the Universities, except in the Punjab, they have no general standard of examination: the students attending them are generally poorer and more dependent upon scholarships: in fact, in the Oriental College, Lahore, nearly every student receives help of this kind. In the four following Tables will be found statistical information as to the more important points, though in regard to one point by no means unimportant, viz., the rates of fees, we have received no detailed returns:—

ORIENTAL COLLEGES.

TABLE No. i a.

Comparative Statistics of Oriental Colleges in British India in 1870-71 and 1881-82.

PROVINCES.	1870-71.								1881-82.								REMARKS.
	DEPART- MENTAL		AIDED	UN-AIDED		TOT H		DEPART- MENTAL		AIDED	UN-AIDED		TOT AL				
	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Madras.....	1	38								1	38			1	38		
Bombay	2	173					2	173	6	1,089				6	1,089		
North-Western Provinces and Oudh,			1	155			1	155	1	427	2	130		3	557		
Punjab.....											1	122		1	122		
Central Provinces																	
TOTAL FOR INDIA*.	3	73	1	155			3	328	8	1,554	3	130		11	1,806		

TABLE No. 2 a.

Number of Pupils studying each optional language in the Oriental Colleges in 1881-82.

PROVINCES.	Sanskrit.	Arabic.	Persian.	Hebrew.	Greek.	Latin.	Vernacular	REMARKS.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Madras	3	8			1			
Bombay								
Bengal		770					131	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh.	448	54	H		ft		41	
Punjab	1	9	3	7	25	J *	4	1
Central Provinces		1	M					
TOTAL FOR INDIA* .	505	861	39				213	

* Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education..

TABLE No. 3a.

*Expenditure on Education in Oriental Colleges * in the official gear 1881-82.*

PROVINCES.	DEPARTMENTAL COLLEGES.				AIDED COLLEGES.			UNAIDED COLLEGES.			TOTAL.			Grand Total.	Percentage of expenditure on Oriental Colleges from Public Funds to total expenditure on education from Public Funds in the Provinces concerned.	Percentage of Provincial expenditure on Oriental Colleges to total expenditure in Oriental Colleges, a	Percentage of Provincial expenditure in Oriental Colleges to total Provincial expenditure on education in the Provinces concerned.	Percentage of total expenditure on Oriental Colleges to total expenditure on education in the Provinces concerned.		
	Public Funds	Other sources.	Total.	Fees.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	Fees.	Other sources.								
I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Madras	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	*	R	R	R	R	R				*01
Bombay.....	16,32,345
Bengal	*2,304	3,580	32,629	48,513	! *</td <td>12,304</td> <td>3,580</td> <td>32,629</td> <td>48,513</td> <td>26,80,510</td> <td>*45</td> <td>25*36</td> <td>*46</td> <td>.77</td>	12,304	3,580	32,629	48,513	26,80,510	*45	25*36	*46	.77
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	13,075	...	282	13,357	3,547	127	5,638	9,312	16,622	127	5,920	22,669	15,77,695	1*05	73*32	179	1*10
Punjab	21,000	16,013	29,146	66,159	21,000	16,013	29,146	66,159	12,31,047	2*22	5*74	3*33	4*06
Central Provinces	5,28,802
TOTAL FOR INDIA!	25,379	3,580	33,374	48,323	24,547	16,140	34,784	75,471	49,926	19,720	63,148	1,37,794	96,32,934	1*02	36-35	1*19	1*02

* The amount expended on scholarships in Oriental colleges has not been returned. In the Punjab Oriental College nearly all the students hold scholarships. In the Oriental colleges of the other Provinces scholarships are more sparingly given.
 + Including expenditure on all professional and technical institutions, and on schools for Europeans and Eurasians.
 † Excluding Ajmer, British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.
 § Including inseparable expenditure incurred by the Punjab University College and by the school attached to the Oriental College. The fee-receipts in the Oriental College and school amounted to Rs. 72 only for the year 1881-82.
 a Exclusive of the Madras Oriental College.

TABLE No. 4a.

Statement showing the average annual cost * of educating each student in Oriental Colleges in 1881-82.

PROVINCES.	DEPARTMENTAL COLLEGES.		AIDED COLLEGES.		UNAIKD COLLECTS.	JIEKABKS.
	Total average annual cost.	Average Annual Cost to Provincial Funds.	Total average annual cost.	Average Annual Cost to Provincial Funds.	Total average annual cost.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	<i>B a. p.</i>	<i>R a. p.</i>	<i>a a. p.</i>	<i>R a. p.</i>	<i>2^o a. p.</i>	
Madras .	11 09					
Bombay.....			» «* «* « *			
Bengal ,	53 2 2	13 7 7				
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	63 6 3	32 11 0	85 6 10	32 8 7		
Punjab .			337 8	107 2 3i		
Central Provinces						
ATTEBAQE POE INDIAf	460 6	19 5 3	247 7 1	56 2 0		

* Calculated on the average monthly number of the students enrolled.

f. Excluding Ajmir British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

^ Inclusive of IDBeperable expenditure incurred by the Punjab CUniversity College and by the school attached to the Oriental College.

320. Moral Training in Colleges.—The subject of moral training in colleges is replete with difficulties—difficulties, however, that are mainly practical. For there is no difference of opinion as to moral training being as necessary as intellectual or physical training, and no dissent from the principle that a system in which moral training was wholly neglected would be unworthy of the name of education. Nor, again, is there any difference of opinion as to the moral value of the love of law and order, of the respect for superiors, of the obedience, regularity, and attention to duty which every well-conducted college is calculated to promote* All these have, by the nearly universal consent of the witnesses, done a great deal to elevate the moral tone and improve the daily practice of the great bulk of those who have been trained in the colleges of India. The degree in which different colleges have exerted a moral influence of this kind is probably as various as the degree of success that has attended the intellectual training given in them, and has doubtless been different in all colleges at different times, depending as it does so largely on the character and personal influence of the Principal and Professors who may form the staff at any given period. So far all the witnesses, and probably all intelligent men, are substantially agreed. Difficulties begin when the question is raised whether good can be done by distinct moral teaching, over and above the moral supervision which all admit to be good and useful, and which all desire to see made more thorough than it is at present. In colleges supported by Missionary Societies, in the Anglo-Muhammadan College, Aligarh, and in at least one other college under native management, the attempt has been made to give such moral teaching on the basis of religion. In Government colleges there has been no attempt at direct moral teaching. In them, entire reliance has as a rule been placed on such moral supervision as can be exerted during college hours, and on such opportunities for indirect moral lessons as are afforded by the study of the ordinary text-books and by the occurrences of ordinary academic life* Religious education, and the possibility of connecting it with Government colleges, we shall consider separately. The present point is the possibility or wisdom of introducing distinct moral teaching in places where there is no religious instruction. The question that was put to bring out the views of our witnesses on the point stood thus:—“ Does de-

CE finite instruction in duty and the principles of moral conduct occupy any place
 c< in the course of Government colleges and schools? Have you any suggestions
 66 to make on this subject?" None of the witnesses raised any objection in prin-
 ciple to such instruction being given. A considerable number held that there
 is no need for such instruction, and two of these, the Principals of Government
 colleges in Bombay and Madras, held that no good result can flow from devoting
 a distinct portion of time to the teaching of duty and the principles of moral con-
 duct. Some also held that the practical difficulties in the way of introducing moral
 instruction into Government colleges are so great that it is expedient to leave
 matters as they are. The great majority, however, of the witnesses that dealt
 with the question at all, expressed a strong desire that definite moral ins true*
 tion should form part of the college course. If we may judge by the utter-
 ances of the witnesses, there is in the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab
 a deep-seated and widespread feeling that discipline and moral supervision
 require to be supplemented by definite instruction in the principles of morality.
 The feeling seems not to be so strong in the Provinces where Western education
 has been longer and more firmly established; but some of the witnesses in every
 Province and some of every class, Native and European equally, have asserted
 that there is urgent need that the principles of morality should be definitely ex-
 pounded. A review of the evidence seems to show that moral instruction
 may be introduced into the course of Government colleges without objection
 anywhere, and in some Provinces with strong popular approval. Those who
 wish definite moral instruction to be introduced generally advocate the teaching
 of some moral text-book. No one, however, has pointed to any text-book
 that he is prepared to recommend for immediate introduction. One witness
 has indicated a difficulty that requires consideration, *viz.*, that if morality be
 introduced as a definite subject of study, a demand will certainly arise for test-
 ing proficiency in it by means of examinations, and that while on the one hand
 acquaintance with theories of morality implies no moral improvement, on
 the other examinations can never test actual growth in practical morality.
 The difficulty thus suggested is that students will not pay serious attention
 to the moral instruction given them unless it is made to tell in their favour at
 University or other public examinations.. It is certainly undesirable to attempt
 to gauge morality by means of the University, but it seems too unfavourable
 an estimate of Indian students to hold that they care for nothing beyond pass-
 ing or standing well at examinations; or even if such a state of feeling be too
 prevalent at present, it seems premature to argue that no better state of feel-
 ing can be induced. One of the Provincial Reports quotes the head of an aided
 college as testifying that no complaint had ever reached him of the appropri-
 ation of four hours a week to religious instruction, a subject which counts for
 nothing at University examinations. Our Recommendation (No. 9) will be
 found in the last paragraph of this Chapter.

321. EeligionsTeacMng in Colleges—Government having deliberately
 adopted the policy of religious neutrality, there is no religious teaching in the
 colleges managed by the Department of Education. The grant-in-aid system is
 based upon the same policy, and it might therefore seem that the subject of reli-
 gious teaching in aided colleges has no place in the Report of this Commission.
 Nor would it if the question had not been raised by some of the witnesses whether
 another policy than the present be not equally consistent with the religious
 neutrality of Government colleges, the policy, namely, not of excluding all religi-
 ons, but of giving equal facility for instruction in them all. This has been advo-
 cated by several native witnesses, especially in the Punjab. The argument ad-
 duced in favour of such a policy seems generally to be that the minds of students

are so filled with their secular studies that religion drops out of view and ceases to influence them, and that home influence has been found in practice too weak to counteract the anti-religious, or rather non-religious, influence which exclusive attention to the subjects studied at college is exerting. This is expressed as follows by one who pleads strongly for a change in this respect: "Children are sent to school as soon as they are able to talk and move about freely, and they spend a number of years in school, until in fact they are passed out as full-blown B.A/s or some such thing... Their whole time and attention being devoted to school-books, they fall very little under what is called the home influence..... The unfavourable impressions which the children receive in the school for a series of years at the early part of their age sit deep in their hearts and exert a very demoralising influence upon them in after-life, to the prejudice of themselves and of those who come in their way. Will Government tolerate such a state of things? Will it still persist in a policy which excludes religion from the State education, but encourages something which is anti-religious, though in the most indirect manner?" The remedy proposed is that Government should employ teachers of all prevalent forms of religion to give instruction in its colleges, or should at least give such teachers admission to its colleges if their services are provided by outside bodies. We are unable to recommend the adoption of any plan of this kind. However praiseworthy the feelings that underlie such a proposal, we are satisfied that no such scheme can be reduced to practice in the present state of Indian society. The system of grants-in-aid was in part designed to meet the difficulty complained of, and those who regret the absence of religious teaching from Government colleges are at liberty to set up colleges giving full recognition to the religious principles they prefer. In doing this they should be most liberally helped, and it may be worth while to point out that the successful establishment of a college in which any form of religion is inculcated would not lose its effect even though the Government college in which religion is not taught should continue to be maintained beside it. Students cannot be kept apart, and cannot but affect one another. Any influence, whether good or bad, that is felt among the students in one college spreads rapidly to those of another that is near it. Thus, those who regard any particular form of religious teaching as a good thing may be sure that by establishing a college in which such teaching is imparted, they are influencing not only the students their own college may attract, but the students in Government colleges as well. This question will, however, be fully discussed in Chapter VIII, and need not detain us here.

322. **Physical Training.**—In most colleges some attention has been paid to the question of physical training. Despite a climate which for six or eight months of the year renders out-door exercise almost impossible during the heat of the day, games, such as cricket, lawn-tennis, croquet, are played with much eagerness and no little skill. In many colleges gymnastics are regularly taught according to Maclaren's system; and in running, jumping, wrestling, in fact in almost every pastime in which agility and suppleness are of avail, the Indian youth shows to great advantage* If not generally of a muscular build, he is by no means wanting in endurance and pluck. Games which, like cricket, especially test such qualities, are most appreciated by the hardier races of the North-West and Punjab, and by the enterprising Parsi. But the Bengali, though supposed to be so averse to physical exercises, has shown a spirit that was not expected of him. In some parts of the Province he is found bringing an eleven to meet the European residents of a station, and not seldom defeating his opponents. What is needed is a more systematic encouragement on the part of the college authorities; for, as a rule, it has hitherto depended upon

the accident of character whether the Principal and Professors take any interest in promoting manly games. In most cases, too, the poverty of the students is greatly in the way, while the instances are rare in which Government has given any pecuniary help. The value of a single B. A. scholarship would, at all events in the smaller colleges, suffice for the maintenance of a cricket club or gymnasium during the whole year.

323. **The University Entrance Examination.**—Although the function of the University Entrance examination has more properly to do with secondary education, to which it is the goal, its bearing upon collegiate education needs some consideration here. The subjects of examination, which are very nearly the same in all Indian Universities, have already been stated. The method of examination differs in one not unimportant particular. In Calcutta and Madras it is by papers alone. In Bombay and the Punjab, the papers are supplemented by an oral examination in certain of the subjects. That the combined method is in itself the more perfect one, there can be no doubt. But the difficulties where the number of examinees is so large, as in the Calcutta and Madras Universities,* are, under a centralised system of examination, practically insuperable. In 1881-82, 2,937 candidates presented themselves at the Entrance examination of the Calcutta University; at that of the Madras University, 3,725. In Bombay the numbers were 1,374; in the Punjab only 249. The difficulty of numbers is increased by the fact that the examination is held at local centres fixed by the University, although the papers are examined by a Central Board. Of such centres the Calcutta University has no less than forty, from Rangoon in the extreme east to Peshawar in the extreme west, from Simla in latitude 31 N. to Colombo in latitude 7 N. Distances so enormous render it impossible for an oral examination to be conducted by any single Board of Examiners^or even by a dozen such Boards. If a separate Board were constituted at each centre, there would still remain two disadvantages which would far more than counterbalance the advantages. In a large number of cases the examiners would examine their own pupils; and, however just and fair their examination, they would always be suspected of unconscious partiality. A difficulty even greater would be that of maintaining uniformity of standard. Oral examination must always be less precise than examination by means of papers; but an oral examination conducted by a number of different Boards could scarcely pretend to anything but the very roughest accuracy. It may, therefore, be accepted that where the candidates are so numerous, no other system is possible than that of papers. It may also be argued that such a system, although imperfect, affords a sufficiently accurate test when the question merely is whether a young man shall be admitted to a certain course of study preliminary to any University distinction. There are some, indeed, who would have no Entrance examination at all as a qualification for admission to colleges. In their view, it should be enough that a lad has reached a certain point in his school education, and that those who have trained him see in his capacity and industry good promise of further progress. They would, in fact, be satisfied by such assurances as are accepted in the many colleges of our English Universities that have no matriculation examination of their own. The analogy, however, is here more apparent than real. A very large number of those who go up to the English Universities do so for the sake of the collateral advantages which attach to the English University system. Association with a large body of his equals taken from various classes of society, representing various interests, and destined to various careers; the discipline which goes with residence in college; the generous rivalry stirred up by a love of manly exercises; the pride felt in belonging to a body so rich in its traditions;

University, the complaint was no doubt sometimes made, perhaps with truth, that the educational authorities of the North-Western Provinces had no sufficient voice in the management of the University, and that consequently little effort was made to adapt the examination to peculiarities of study due to nationality or religion. This complaint is no longer heard; and in the tacit acquiescence of all whose interests are concerned we have the clearest proof that on this score at all events no valid accusation lies against the University. If there be disadvantages on any other score, these, it is hoped, will be removed at no distant date by the establishment of a University for the North-Western Provinces. 325. A general Objection.-Another objection to the Entrance Examination of the different Universities is made on the ground of its narrowness. It fixes, say the objectors, one standard as the goal of all secondary education, whereas two standards are really required, namely, a standard for those who go through the University course, and a standard for those who desire to enter direct into business or practical life. The objection is a valid one, and yet one which can hardly be made the subject of a complaint against the Universities. That which has rendered desirable such a double standard is a growth of education not contemplated when the Universities were first established, their legitimate function then being to test the merits of students who aimed at a liberal education. For the vast numbers who now set a goal to themselves in the Entrance examination they were not prepared. Like the Universities in England, they had, till lately, no sufficient motive for concerning themselves with middle class examinations. That they may do so now with advantage is the opinion of many. "At present," it has been remarked,* "no attempt has been made in the High Schools to organise what is called in English public schools a 'modern side'; nor would it be practicable to organize " it without the co-operation of the University." This may be true; but while the high schools are waiting for the University, the University may reply that it is waiting for the high schools. A proposal has been made by Professor Oxenham, one of the Bombay witnesses, that the present Entrance examination should be reconstituted and be conducted by the colleges, while a second examination should be instituted on the model of the "Middle Class" examinations of the English Universities. The latter part of this proposal has been adopted by the Commission and forms the subject of a Recommendation in Chapter V. The former part of it, however, does not seem to us to be without its objections. There would, if the colleges admitted, be some danger of a varying standard. This in the long run would tend to lower the general level, and so to affect the aims and character of the high schools. Again, as we have already pointed out, an Entrance examination conducted by a University supplies a gauge of capacity and attainment highly useful in a country in the present condition of India, and one which would not be accepted with the same confidence if the colleges were the examining bodies. For it may be safely assumed that a considerable number of those who elected for a University career would not continue their studies even to the F. A. examination. Such, therefore, as for any reason found it necessary to desist, would have no other certificate than that of admission to a college. Moreover, if it proved easier to enter a college than to pass the middle class examination, the inducement would be to pursue a course of study which, though less useful in after-life, afforded a more immediate prospect of obtaining employment of some kind or other. If, however, the Universities are to take upon themselves the general duty of gauging the

progress made in education not strictly of a University type, it may be worth while to consider whether the higher vernacular schools also might not fitly come * Bombay Provincial Report, page 133.

University, the complaint was no doubt sometimes made, perhaps with truth, that the educational authorities of the North-Western Provinces had no sufficient voice in the management of the University, and that consequently little effort was made to adapt the examination to peculiarities of study due to nationality or religion. This complaint is no longer heard; and in the tacit acquiescence of all whose interests are concerned we have the clearest proof that on this score at all events no valid accusation lies against the University. If there be disadvantages on any other score, these, it is hoped, will be removed at no distant date by the establishment of a University for the North-Western Provinces.

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* Bombay Provincial Report, page 133.

under their scrutiny. To such schools it is difficult to attach too much importance. For throughout the rural districts they afford the kind of education best suited to the more literary classes among a rural population, and their character largely influences that of primary vernacular schools by supplying them with **competent** teachers and by raising up a class of men to whom the value of education has been made clear. It has been endeavoured in various parts of the country to meet the object we have in view by means of provincial **examinations**; but such examinations, even if equally thorough, cannot hope to carry with them the **same** recognition as those conducted by a University Board.

326. The Effect of collegiate Instruction upon the Enlightenment of the People.—An estimate of the effect which collegiate instruction has had upon the general education and enlightenment of the people must in fairness be accompanied by a reference to the objects which it sets before itself. The reformers of 1835, to whom the system is due, claimed that only by an education in English, and after European methods, could we hope to raise the moral and intellectual tone of Indian society and supply the Administration with a competent body of public servants. To what degree, then, have these objects been attained? Our answer is in the testimony of witnesses before this Commission, in the thoughtful opinions delivered from time to time by men whose position has given them ample opportunities of judging, and in the facts obvious to all eyes throughout the country. And that answer is conclusive: if not that collegiate education has fulfilled all the expectations entertained of it, at least that it has not disappointed the hopes of a sober judgment. Many mistakes in the methods employed have been pointed out and corrected by maturer experience. Much done has had to be undone. Not a little yet remains for gradual re-consideration. So, too, of the recipients of our college education it is by no means pretended that they are the very crown and flower of Indian humanity. Many unlovely defects of character still give occasion of scorn to those who are nothing if not critical. Of superficial learning, and of pretentious self-assertion manifested in a variety of ways, there has no doubt been plenty. It would be strange if it were otherwise. For in no country under any circumstances has there been equal or similar encouragement to the development of such and other faults. The surroundings of the Indian student are not always favourable to the development of a high type of character. Neither in the labour nor in the recreations of those about him does he find much that sorts with his intellectual pursuits. Living in an atmosphere of ignorance, his sense of superiority is in danger of becoming conceit. Reverence for the current forms of the religion of his country seems difficult to him when face to face with dogmas which science has exploded, and a disposition to scoff does not beautify his nature. Nor is it possible, at least in Government colleges, to appeal in a large and systematic manner to that religious teaching which has been found to be the most universal basis of morality. Again, his intercourse with the ruling race is not wholly without its drawbacks. Unwise enthusiasts flatter him with hopes and prophecies. The advantages he enjoys give him a distorted idea of claims to be urged upon a Government that has done so much for him. TTig self-reliance weakens with encouragement, or he is irritated and rebuked by the chilly courtesies of English reserve. The narrow circle of his life; the absence of facilities for travel, whereby his sympathies and experience might be enlarged; the strong temptation to lay aside his studies so soon as employment supplies his moderate necessities; the scanty inducement to fit himself for higher duties,—all help to dwarf the moral and intellectual growth, and to foster those faults against which satirists, good-humoured or bitter, have directed so many shafts.

All the greater, therefore, is the credit due to him when he rises above the influences by which he is surrounded; and, whatever his weaknesses, it may be safely said that they who best know the educated native have the most to urge in his favour. It may also be safely said that many of the faults charged against the earlier generation of college students are disappearing as an English education is less regarded in the light of a rare distinction. Some of those faults were born of the time and the circumstances ; some had root in a system of instruction now everywhere becoming more thorough and more scientific.

327. The Professions which the Majority of educated Natives adopt.—Of the professions to which a student takes on leaving college, the most favourite are Government service and the Law. In the latter will generally be found those whose talents are brightest, and in whom self-reliance is most strong; in the former, those who, from narrowness of circumstances or from a doubt of their own powers, have been glad to accept employment, sometimes of a very humble kind. As a Government servant, the ex-student is found everywhere and in all branches of the Administration; as a clerk, as a subordinate Judicial, Revenue, or Police officer ; as a Professor in a college or teacher in a school; in various capacities in the Department of Public Works, the Forest Department, the Telegraph, the Railway, the Medical service. In all he holds appointments involving considerable trust and exercising zeal, energy, activity. And in some Provinces he has attained his present position despite strenuous antagonism on the part of his countrymen brought up in the old school, who were naturally anxious to keep in their families posts regarded, from length of tenure, as hereditary possessions. That this antagonism was for so long so efficient resulted, in a considerable measure, from an unwillingness on the part of Civil officers to employ a class of men with whom they had but slight acquaintance, and who were without the necessary apprenticeship to official life. Such unwillingness is now becoming a thing of the past. Throughout the country Civil officers have begun to discover and readily to acknowledge, that in integrity, capacity for work, intelligence, industry, the subordinate trained in college excels his fellow brought up according to the traditions of the past. At the Bar, a profession which in many ways is eminently suited to the bent of the native mind, the ex-students of our colleges have made their way with honourable success. Even in the Presidency towns, though pitted against distinguished English lawyers, they carry off a large share of the practice, acquitting themselves with especial credit in civil cases. If their legal acumen has, for its very subtlety, sometimes been the subject of doubtful compliment, many of their number are conspicuous for grasp of subject, and breadth of view. Though pleading in a foreign tongue, they not seldom display an eloquence and power of debate which would command admiration before any English tribunal. Some of the ablest of them have attained to the Bench of the Calcutta High Court; and last year, during the absence of the Chief Justice, his high post was filled by Mr. Justice Romesh Chandra Mitra. Madras and Bombay tell the same tale, and though in the more backward Provinces the number of distinguished advocates is not large, a Musalman gentleman, once a student of the Benares College,^ was recently called to fill a vacancy in the Allahabad High Court. In the District Courts, where of old chicanery and many questionable devices so largely prevailed, the influence of the educated native pleader has generally been of a healthy kind. And when this is the case it is especially creditable to him. Por, away from the eye of those whose disapproval would mean loss of professional caste, and exposed to influences and temptations such as perhaps advocacy in no other country confronts, he has need of a strong moral rectitude and

much earnestness of purpose. But with the support of the wholesome pride which the members of his profession feel in so honourable a career, it every day becomes easier to him to emulate the dignity and self-respect which are so pre-eminently characteristic of the English Bar. Government service and the Law, as we have said, engage the attention of the majority of our graduates and undergraduates. A smaller number betake themselves to private service as clerks, assistants, or managers. Some engage in trade. They are, however, comparatively few in number. For commerce needs capital, and hereditary aptitude for business, neither of which is usually possessed in any sufficient degree by those educated in our colleges. Where, indeed, a commercial career is chosen by them, the general testimony is of the same purport as that borne to the credit with which they fill other positions in life. Such testimony coming from various quarters, and having reference to a variety of occupations, we might easily quote at great length. It may be enough to cite the opinions of a few gentlemen of high position and varied experience. In such a list no one perhaps has a better right to a foremost place than Sir M. R. Westropp, who, first as a Puisne Judge of the High Court and afterwards for nearly twenty years as Chief Justice of Bombay, had daily opportunity of gauging the capacity and character of men trained in the colleges of the Presidency. In reply to an address presented to him last year on his retirement from the Bench, his Lordship remarked :—“ In tone, in learning, in every thing that was important for professional men, the pleaders of the High Court were pre-eminent, and they were “ now, whatever their predecessors in the Sadr Adalat might have been in a “ by-gone generation, a highly honourable body. This had been proved by “ their own acts; and, what was more, they had proved themselves liberal and “ generous, as circumstances which he had had the opportunity of noticing, “ would show. It had been a great pleasure to him to see so much of them and “ to notice their daily conduct for so many years, and the feeling of satisfaction which he experienced was shared by all the Judges. The educational “ institutions now in existence in Bombay contributed greatly to the class of “ men who succeeded in passing the examination for the career of High “ Court pleaders and Subordinate Judges. He trusted the improvement “ in education might go on. It had penetrated to a considerable extent among “ the pleaders in the mofussil also; but the soldiers of the old garrison were “ too firmly in possession to be dislodged speedily... In the mofussil the “ old practitioner had a stronghold, but his place was being gradually filled by “ the alumni of the Elphinstone High School and of the University of Bombay. “ That they might go on and prosper was the earnest desire of himself and “ brethren/5 Of similar tenour was the evidence given before the Commission by Sir William Wedderburn. In Madras, Chief Justice Sir Charles Turner, whose many years’ acquaintance with the North-Western Provinces has varied his experience, remarked in his Convocation address delivered in 1881 before the University of Madras:—“ Modern India has proved “ by examples that are known to, and honoured by, all in this assembly “ that her sons can qualify themselves to hold their own with the best “ of European talent in the Council Chamber, on the Bench, at the “ Bar, and in the mart. The time cannot be far distant when she will “ produce her philosopher, her moralist, her reformer.” Of the morality of our ex-students question has sometimes been made; not so much perhaps because experience justified an accusation, as because it was pre-supposed that those who received no definite religious instruction must necessarily have but little reverence for a moral law to which were attached no divine sanctions. There is, however, no reason whatever why a scientific education should lower

the standard of conduct. It is true that such an education tends to weaken and destroy primitive beliefs, but morality is independent of those beliefs, and a young man's studies at college are certainly not calculated to weaken his appreciation of moral truths. Nor in estimating the effect which collegiate education has had upon religious belief, ought we to forget the large extent to which students have joined the Brahma Somaj and other theistic associations of the same character, or the constant prominence given in their public writings and discussions to the subject of a reformed faith. In the restricted sense of integrity, the higher level that prevails is certified by the evidence of facts and the evidence of words. It is not merely the Government officer who now feels himself able to place reliance upon the uprightness of his subordinate. The same is the case with commercial men, with managers of banks, with Railway companies. Dishonest servants are, of course, sometimes found among highly-educated natives of India, as they are sometimes found among highly-educated natives of England. And equally, of course, the most has been made of such instances to discredit an education novel in *Vinyl* and therefore disliked by many. If, again, under the term morality, we include those qualities which tend to the general welfare of a people, then in a larger sense has the highly-educated native vindicated his claim to our respect. For it is he whose enterprise and enthusiasm have done much to rouse self-effort in education, and whose munificence has not seldom made that effort possible. It is he who has created the native press in its most intelligent form. His are the various societies, literary and scientific, societies for religious and for social reform. To his activity it is due that vernacular literature is so rapidly multiplying its utility. From his number have come men who have guided the policy of Native States at critical times, and filled with dignity important offices under the British Government. Still, desirous as we are fully to acknowledge the good effects of collegiate education, we do not shut our eyes to certain deficiencies of result and certain positive evils ascribed to various defects of system. We cannot affirm that in education has been found a sufficient cure for the comparative absence of lofty motive and of a sense of public duty which for long centuries has been an admitted drawback on so much that is attractive in the character of natives of India. We cannot deny that though the standard of morality is higher than it was, it is still a morality based to a large extent upon considerations of a prudent self-interest rather than upon any higher principles of action. Moral strength of purpose under circumstances in which such strength has nothing but itself to rely upon is too often conspicuous for its absence; and great intellectual attainments are by no means always accompanied by great elevation of character. On the other hand, however, it must not be forgotten that improvement in this matter, especially under the conditions imposed by the past history of the country, must be the work of several generations. In the minor matter of courtesy and good manners, it is also objected that there has been a distinct deterioration; that in their desire to cast off the reproach of subservience, educated natives have mistaken rudeness of behaviour for dignified independence. This charge within certain limits admits of no dispute. Still, it is a result at which we cannot greatly wonder when we take into account the ugly faults and unpleasant symptoms that accompany a period of transition. Again, those who most fully recognise the general improvement, ascribe it to influences of which education is but one, and by no means the most prominent one; though to this it may perhaps be replied that it is education which has brought about a state of mind upon which alone those other influences could work. There is another respect, of a different, and more special character, in which collegiate education has as yet certainly failed. With a few brilliant exceptions, no eminent scholars are to be found in the long list of

University graduates. Two reasons, however, go a great way to account for this fact. One is to be found in the character of the academic system in its earlier days. That system aimed rather at giving a general education than at encouraging special knowledge. The more recent reforms all tend towards the substitution of a small number of subjects for the multifarious requirements which experience has condemned. A second reason is the poverty of the Indian student. To one out of five hundred, perhaps, it is a matter of indifference whether, when he goes out into the world, he can at once earn his livelihood. With the rest, employment in some shape or other is a necessity ; and that employment rarely leaves him leisure or inclination to carry on studies of which he has but come to the threshold. Private liberality has done much for education in many directions. But the endowment of research is not one of those directions. A life of learned ease is almost unknown to the Indian student; his success must be success of a practical character; his ambition waits upon his daily wants.

In judging of the results already attained, many allowances have to be made; above all the allowance of time. Even in the most advanced Province of India, collegiate education of the present type is barely fifty years old; in some parts of the country its life measures less than half that span; in some it has not yet begun. It must be remembered, too, that that education is of exotic growth, or, rather, that it has been imposed upon the country by an alien power. If the advent of the philosopher, the moralist, the reformer, of which Sir Charles Turner is so hopeful, be still “ a far-off adorable dream,” it is but a sober estimate which declares that, directly or indirectly, collegiate education has been beneficial in a variety of ways to an extensive portion of a vast empire.

328. Recommendations.—The Recommendations which we have to make with regard to the general question of collegiate education cover a somewhat wide field, though we have been careful to exclude from their scope any principles which fall under the direct cognisance of the University rather than of the Education Department and of Government. Our Recommendations refer to the provision of increased facilities for collegiate instruction ; to the principles on which grants to aided colleges should be regulated; to the means of increasing the efficiency, without increasing the cost, of the professorial staff in Government colleges ; to the regulation of studies; to the rates of fees and the methods of levying them; and to the establishment of scholarships for collegiate students on a systematic and, in some Provinces, extended basis.

329. Extension of collegiate Education—w e regard the provision of increased facilities for collegiate education, wherever reasonable grounds have been shown for their necessity, as a necessary complement of those Recommendations which we shall hereafter have to make for closing, or for transferring to private management, other colleges whose continuance at all, or whose continuance as Government institutions, experience has shown to be unnecessary. But, on account of the variety of conditions involved, we have thought it sufficient to recommend each case to the attention, of the Local Government concerned, to be dealt with in the light of the considerations that will be adduced in Chapter VIII. The Commission is unanimous in the opinion that where additional means of collegiate instruction may be expected, on reasonably sufficient grounds, to increase the welfare of a Province or to advance the progress of its people, the provision of such additional facilities should be an object of solicitude to Government, preferably by means of the system of grants-in-aid, but in exceptional cases, and subject to necessary financial limita-

tions, by the direct instrumentality of Government. At the same time we are of opinion that the principle should be kept in view, that a small number of colleges, thoroughly efficient and suitably situated, are likely to be of more permanent benefit to the interests of higher education than a larger number of colleges less efficient and less numerously attended. But we are not prepared to make any definite Recommendation on this point with regard to the future since we feel that every proposal for the establishment of a new college must be determined by careful reference to the circumstances of each case.

330. **Grants-in-aid.**—Whatever opinion may be held as to the advisability of regulating the grants to aided schools by reference solely to the results of examination, we are unanimously of opinion that such a system is altogether inapplicable to aided colleges. We regard it as essential to the stability of those institutions that their grants should be fixed for a term of years, so that their managers may be able to estimate with accuracy their various sources of income. The causes which lead to success or failure at the examinations of the University are various, and by no means solely dependent on the efficiency or inefficiency of the teaching in any particular institution. If a college by the maintenance of an efficient staff, and by a liberal rate of expenditure, gives solid guarantees of its desire and intention to succeed, those guarantees should certainly be taken into account in determining the rate of aid, altogether antecedently to, and irrespectively of, the success which its students may attain at subsequent examinations. Such success or failure through a term of years should, however, be taken into account when the grants to aided colleges come up for revision. Our Recommendations on this point are *that the rate of aid to each college be determined by the strength of the staff, the expenditure on its maintenance, the efficiency of the institution, and the wants of the locality; and that provision be made for special grants to aided colleges whenever necessary, for the supply and renewal of buildings, furniture, libraries, and other apparatus of instruction.*

331. **Professorial Staff and Pensions** “We are strongly of opinion that, in order to secure the maintenance of a high standard of efficiency in the professorial staff of Government colleges, especially in the European professoriate, all such officers should be eligible for good-service pensions at a considerably earlier date than that fixed under existing rules. If an officer should be incapacitated by sickness for further service, he is eligible for pension at different rates after 15 and after 25 years; and if he has entered the service after the age of 25, he is required to serve three years less than in other cases; but subject to these two exceptions, every officer has to serve the full period of 30 years before he can hope to obtain any pension. We are convinced that the efficiency of the Department is not promoted by attaching so long a term of compulsory service to appointments in which, above all others, energy and even enthusiasm are essential qualities; and we strongly recommend that opportunities should be afforded, by a graduated scale of pensions, for the earlier retirement of those officers who feel that they have reached the limit of useful work. We also recommend the more extended employment of competent Natives of India as Professors of colleges, a system which has been adopted in many Provinces with the best results in point both of efficiency and of economy. Our Recommendations are, therefore, *that in order to secure a due succession of competent officers in the Education Department, the period of necessary service qualifying for pension should be reduced, and that a graduated scale of pension based on length of service, and obtainable without medical certificate, should be introduced; and that Indian graduates, especially those who have also graduated*

in European Universities, be more largely employed than they have hitherto been in the colleges maintained by Government.

332. Salaries.—Along with the increased employment of native Professors, we have taken into consideration the question of fixing the initial and final salaries of the appointments to be held by Europeans at higher rates than those for which Natives will be eligible, with the object of securing the services of specially qualified experts in their several branches of learning. We believe that the principle is a sound one, and that the whole question deserves the attention of Government; but we are not prepared to submit any definite Recommendation on this point.

333. Subjects of Study.—With regard to the subjects of study, we are of opinion that wherever the University has prescribed alternative courses for any examination, the requirements of education cannot be satisfactorily met unless students are allowed a large option between such courses. It does not promote diversity of culture, nor does it allow differently constituted minds a fair opportunity of development on the lines best suited to them, if all the students of one college are compelled to take up a literary course, and all the students of another to study science. We are aware that this necessity is occasionally forced upon the Department and other managers by the limited staff of Professors at their disposal; but we incline to the opinion that, even with the existing staff, the course proposed could be more completely followed than in some instances we find it to be. We have therefore recommended that in all the larger Government colleges, students should be allowed such option; and we think that, if our proposals for the increased appointment of Native Professors are carried out, the difficulty of establishing alternative courses in such colleges will be greatly lessened. This Recommendation implies that liberal aid should be given to those non-Government colleges which make provision for the teaching of alternative courses. Our Recommendation is *that in order to encourage diversity of culture, both on the literary and on the physical side, it is desirable in all the larger colleges, Government and aided > to make provision for more than one of the alternative courses laid down by the Universities.*

334. Admission to college Lectures of Students who have not passed the Examinations of the University.—Connected with this proposal is another, that of admitting to certain courses of lectures students who have not passed the examinations required by the University. A student who has not passed the Entrance or the First Arts Examination, and who is therefore unable to continue the course of studies prescribed by the University, may nevertheless desire to attend lectures in subjects which he can study with profit, even though no University examination in these subjects awaits him at the end of his course. It is not probable that many students will avail themselves of such a permission, since to most the attainment of a University certificate is practically the chief object of their studies. But the concession would be a definite boon to some students who are not compelled to work for their living; and in this way we might succeed in bringing the sons of rich men under the wholesome influences of a college life. Principals of colleges, we may point out, are not prohibited from admitting such students; but we think it desirable to draw attention to the advantages of their occasionally exercising the power that they possess, and we recommend *that the discretionary power of Principals of colleges, to admit to certain courses of lectures in special cases students who have not passed the examinations required by the Universities, be affirmed.*

335. Moral Teaching.—The proposals we have to make on the subject of

moral teaching are contained in our Recommendations Nos. 8 and 9. Regarding the former, the preparation of a moral text-book, there was considerable difference of opinion. On the one hand, it was argued that moral and religious instruction was the necessary complement to secular instruction; that to the people of India, so instinctively religious, such instruction would be thoroughly congenial; that the necessity of it had been forcibly pressed upon the Commission by a number of witnesses, and its absence been the subject of many complaints; that in spite of the principle of religious neutrality, or of the variety of religious belief among the various sections of the Indian Community, there would be no difficulty in basing moral training upon the principles of natural religion, since in those principles all men are agreed; that if virtue could not be taught, it would be possible to impress upon students the necessity of practising virtue; and that there would be no insuperable difficulty in compiling a moral treatise acceptable to all classes which would serve as a corrective to the material, or, at least, to the exclusively intellectual, character of collegiate instruction. A letter from Dr, Meurin, R.C. Bishop of Bombay, offering to draw up a moral text-book of this kind, had already been received by the Commission, and it was also understood that Dr. V. French, Bishop of Lahore, contemplated the publication of a similar work. The arguments in opposition were to the effect that moral teaching is out of place, and likely to fail in its purpose, at a time of life when the obligation of duty is thoroughly known, and when the chief requirement is not to inform the conscience but to train the will. In all colleges, and under all courses of instruction, the most effective moral training consists in inculcating habits of order, diligence, truthfulness, and due self-respect combined with submission to authority, all of which lessons a good teacher finds useful opportunities of imparting. The formation of such habits is promoted by the study of the lives and actions of great men, such as the student finds in the course of his English reading; and, it may also be hoped, by the silent influence upon his character of constant intercourse with teachers whom he is able to regard with respect and affection. Nor, again, is there reason to believe that collegiate education of the present type has any injurious effect upon the life and character of the students. On the contrary, the nearly unanimous testimony of those who have had the best opportunities of observing goes to show that in integrity, in self-respect, in stability of purpose, and generally in those solid qualities which constitute an honourable and useful character, the University graduate is generally superior to those who have not enjoyed the advantages which college training confers. A further objection was expressed to the effect that, even supposing it was found possible to produce a moral text-book which should find acceptance with all, there was some danger, in examining the foundations of duty from any other than a religious standpoint, of weakening its binding force as a motive to action. The interests of morality would not be promoted by inculcating a habit of analysis in regard to moral questions. **Our Recommendation on this point is that an attempt be made to prepare a moral text-book, based upon the fundamental principles of natural religion, such as may be taught in all Government and non-Government colleges. A Recommendation was also carried to the effect that the Principal or one of the Professors in each Government and aided college deliver to each of the college classes in every session a series of lectures on the duties of a man and a citizen. This proposal was adopted almost unanimously, though the fear was expressed that there would be a danger of such lectures being delivered in a perfunctory manner in case of those Professors who felt that they had no aptitude for the work.** In connection with the subject of moral training it may be stated that an

impression seems to exist in certain quarters that the teaching in some Government colleges is such as to interfere with the grounds of religious belief. We think that the greatest care should be taken to avoid all cause for complaint in such a matter; but we deem it inadvisable to make any definite Recommendation on a subject on which we possess little information of practical value. We are also of opinion that no question should be set in the examinations of any Government college calling for a declaration of religious belief on the part of the candidates; and that no answer or translation given by any candidate should be objected to on the ground of its expressing any peculiarity of religious belief. This suggestion corresponds with a rule which is distinctly laid down by the Universities of Calcutta and Bombay. Complaints have also reached us of the difficulties which some Professors experience in being tied down to manuals of history and to text-books on philosophy in which views or systems are maintained which they feel they cannot accept. Such teachers would gladly welcome a course of instruction which would give them and their pupils full liberty of treatment in historical matters, and full liberty of choice in regard to philosophical theories and schools. They are of opinion that a declaration to that effect would give great encouragement to the study of history and philosophy. But as the point seems to bear on the working of Indian Universities, a subject which does not come within the scope of this Commission, we confine ourselves to making mention of the complaint.

336- Fees.—With regard to fees in colleges, we are of opinion that the rates now levied are generally adequate, regard being had to the facts that the majority of college students belong to the struggling middle class ; that it is practically impossible, even if it were desirable, to regulate fees according to the income of the student, and that any considerable increase in the rates of fees would probably defeat its own object by so far reducing the number of students as to diminish the total receipts of the colleges from that source. Our Recommendations are designed to secure two objects—first, the stability of colleges by requiring fees to be levied in all but exceptional cases, and at as high a rate as the circumstances of students will admit; and, secondly, the encouragement of aided colleges, by not requiring them to levy fees at rates as high as those charged in Government colleges. We have added a special Recommendation with regard to the fees charged in the Presidency College at Madras, which are only half or less than half of the corresponding rates at Bombay and Calcutta. We assume that if the fees are raised in the Presidency College, they will be correspondingly raised in other colleges in the town of Madras and elsewhere. We also desire to draw attention to our Recommendation that fees in colleges, even though levied monthly for the convenience of students, are to be regarded as charges for a full college term. The corresponding rule, which is already in force in some Provinces with good effect, is framed as much in the interests of students as of colleges. It is intended to relieve students of a besetting temptation to irregular attendance. In the hope of saving one or two months* fees, they obtain admission after the session has begun, or leave before it is over, to the detriment alike of their own progress and of that of the classes which they join. Our Recommendations on this subject are four in number, viz.:—

That while it is desirable to affirm the principle that fees at the highest rate consistent with the undiminished spread of education should be levied in every college aided by the State, no aided college should be required to levy fees at the same rate as that charged in a neighbouring Government college.

That no college, Government or aided, be allowed to receive more than a

certain proportion of free students; the proportion to be fixed by the Department in communication, where necessary, with the managers.

That to secure regularity of attendance at colleges, the principle be affirmed that fees, though levied monthly for the convenience of students, are to be regarded as payments for % term, and that a student has no right to a certificate from his college for any term until the whole fee for that term is paid.

That as the fees in the Presidency College of Madras are considerably lower than those which it is found practicable to levy in the Presidency Colleges of Calcutta and Bombay, the Government of Madras be invited to consider the advisability of enhancing the rate of fees in that college.

337. The Amount which it is expedient to spend on Scholarships—

In connection with the subject of college scholarships, we considered the propriety of laying down some rules as to the total amount that it is advisable to spend in providing them. We observe that the practice of the different Provinces varies greatly upon this point. The proportion of the gross educational outlay devoted to college scholarships is, as already stated, in Madras *29 per cent., in Bombay *45 per cent., in Bengal 1-5 per cent., in the North-Western Provinces •5 per cent., in the Punjab '77 per cent., and in the Central Provinces r 18 per cent. Again, comparing the provincial assignment with the scholarships provided from it exclusively, we find that Madras spends '85 per cent, of that assignment upon scholarships tenable in Arts colleges, Bombay 1*27 per cent., Bengal 27 per cent., the North-Western Provinces *52 percent., the Punjab 1*17 per cent., and the Central Provinces 2*34 per cent. Some provision for such scholarships is certainly in every way desirable, but it is difficult to determine what proportion of the entire funds at the disposal of the Department ought to be so expended. More or less variation there doubtless ought to be, depending on such considerations as the comparative wealth or poverty of a Province, its advanced or backward state in regard to education, and also on the extent to which it makes provision for the admission of free students to the colleges. The existing variation, however, appears to be excessive. On the whole, we think it open to question whether the provision for college scholarships should exceed 2 per cent, of the expenditure from provincial revenues upon education. This will, of course, be exclusive of scholarships from private endowments or bequests that may happen to be administered by the Department. Such a rule would not necessarily affect any Province but Bengal, and, in a small degree, the Central Provinces. In Bengal, considering the advanced state of higher education, a smaller provision than is made at present might probably suffice; and there are many objects on which the sum which would be saved by the proposed arrangement might be profitably spent. It might be devoted, for example, to some object calculated to promote primary education, such as the maintenance of Normal schools for teachers in Primary schools, or the improvement of the Inspecting staff. It is true that under the present liberal provision for scholarships the number of college students in Bengal has somewhat more than doubled in the last ten years, but in Madras, with an altogether insignificant allotment for scholarships, the number has quadrupled in the same period. It was also urged that not only is the number of scholarships in Bengal extremely large, but that some of them seem excessive in amount. Of those tenable in Arts colleges, a few are as high as Rs. 25 a month, a sum which was thought to leave no room for effort or self-denial on the part of the student or his friends, and to be larger than with due regard to other claims the State seemed warranted in spending in order to enable a single student to obtain an education that would in all probability bring him ample pecuniary reward in after-life. Our Recommendation, therefore, is that Local Governments and Administrations be invited to consider whether it is necessary

to assign for scholarships tenable in Arts colleges a larger proportion of the Provincial grants for education than 2 per cent. We must add that in making this Recommendation we are far from unanimous. On the other side of the question it was urged that the contemplated saving would in no way touch the grave question of primary education. For that class of education independent provision was made. For the last three years an addition of a lakh of rupees a year had been made to the primary assignment in Bengal* so that for the next financial year it stood at seven lakhs; and, this being so, there was absolutely no justification on this ground for crippling the scholarship system in the way proposed. Though the present expenditure upon scholarships might look excessive, it was not so in reality. If scholarships were meant as an encouragement to students and an incentive to learning, they must bear some equitable proportion to the total number of students. The real influence and effect of a system of scholarships was to be estimated by comparing their number, not with the total number of college students, but with that of the Entrance candidates, among whom the competition lay. For every student who gained a scholarship there was a much larger number who came within range of the competition and whose energies and industry were stimulated by the hope of success. The Bengal system, moreover, was a self-acting one, and gave little where little, and much where much, was required. Each Division had a number of scholarships allotted to it, and as education advanced in any part of the country, the proportion of scholarships became *ipso facto* less and less. It was further urged that the wealth of Bengal was no argument so far as concerned the classes attending the colleges. About 84 per cent, of the undergraduates in Bengal belonged to the struggling middle classes, while as many as 12 per cent., though generally of respectable position, were steeped in poverty, and it was only by the help of scholarships that many of them were enabled to go on with their studies. Moreover, liberality towards colleges in the matter of scholarships was felt not only by the colleges themselves, but throughout every stage of education; and the character and progress of Primary schools were indirectly more beneficially affected by the present order of things than, could possibly be the case if the insignificant amount saved were directly expended upon them. It was pointed out that among the many witnesses examined, there had been an absolute silence as to any need for curtailing the present grant; and that there was no advantage to be gained by laying down a hard-and-fast line for all Provinces. Finally, it was stated that the Local Government was satisfied with the present state of things, and that the experience of the Local Government was best able to decide the question.

On the subject of additional scholarships, our Recommendations are confined to the creation of scholarships tenable by graduates. Such scholarships exist in some Provinces, but they are mostly confined as endowments to students of particular Government colleges; and we are of opinion that similar advantages should, if possible, be offered to distinguished students without regard to their place of education. The object of these scholarships would be to enable deserving students to proceed to the M.A. degree, and, in special cases, to visit Europe in order to acquire practical acquaintance with some branch of mechanical industry. The latter is an object which the Commission are inclined to regard as of the highest importance, as connecting education with the material progress and prosperity of the country. We have also affirmed the principle that scholarship-holders, as such, should not be exempted from the payment of fees; and that, in general, scholarships, even though of small amount, if tenable in any college, are to be preferred to free studentships confined to particular institutions. Our Recommendations are, therefore—

That the Local Governments and Administrations be invited to consider

whether it is necessary to assign for scholarships, tenable in Arts colleges, a larger proportion of the provincial grant for education than two per cent.

That scholarship-holders, as such, be not exempted from payment of the ordinary fees.

That the Local Governments be invited to consider the advisability of appropriating, where necessary, a certain sum for the establishment of scholarships tenable by graduates reading for the M.A. degree.

That the Local Governments be invited to consider the advisability of establishing scholarships for distinguished graduates to enable them to proceed to Europe for the purpose of practically studying some branch of mechanical industry.

That in place of the system existing in Madras, according to which the first twenty students at the University Entrance and E. An Examinations are allowed to read free in any Government college, liberal provision be made for a system of scholarships open to general competition and tenable in any college.

That the Government of Bombay be requested to consider whether all or some of the scholarships now restricted to the Elphinstone and Deccan Colleges may, with due regard to the circumstances under which they were originally founded, be made tenable at any affiliated college; and that if these scholarships cannot fairly be opened to general competition, they be awarded as far as possible to poor students who, but for the stipends, would be unable to continue their studies at college.

338. Recommendations*—The Recommendations adopted by the Commission are as follows:—

- (1) That the attention of the Local Governments be invited to the recommendations made in the several provincial reports with regard to providing or extending the means of collegiate education in the province of Sind and at Ahmedabad in Bombay, at Bhagalpur in Bengal, and at Jabalpur in the Central Provinces; and also to the question of the establishment of an aided college at Delhi under native management.
- (2) That the rate of aid to each college be determined by the strength of the staff, the expenditure on its maintenance, the efficiency of the institution, and the wants of the locality.
- (3) That provision be made for special grants to aided colleges, whenever necessary, for the supply and renewal of buildings, furniture, libraries, and other apparatus of instruction.
- (4) That in order to secure a due succession of competent officers in the Education Department, the period of necessary service qualifying for pension should be reduced, and that a graduated scale of pensions based on length of service, and obtainable without medical certificate, should be introduced.
- (5) That Indian graduates, especially those who have also graduated in European Universities, be more largely employed than they have hitherto been in the colleges maintained by Government.
- (6) That in order to encourage diversity of culture, both on the literary and on the physical side, it is desirable, in all the larger colleges, Government and aided, to make provision for more than one of the alternative courses laid down by the Universities.
- (7) That the discretionary power of Principals of colleges, to admit to certain courses of lectures in special cases students who have not passed the examinations required by the Universities, be affirmed*

- (8) That an attempt be made to prepare a moral text-book, based upon the fundamental principles of natural religion, such as may be taught in all Government and non-Government colleges.**
- (9) That the Principal or one of the Professors in each Government and aided college deliver to each of the college classes in every session a series of lectures on the duties of a man and a citizen.**
- (10) That while it is desirable to affirm the principle that fees at the highest rate consistent with the undiminished spread of education should be levied in every college aided by the State, no aided college should be required to levy fees at the same rate as that charged in a neighbouring Government college.**
- (11) That no college, Government or aided, be allowed to receive more than a certain proportion of free students; the proportion to be fixed by the Department, in communication, where necessary, with the managers.**
- (12) That to secure regularity of attendance at colleges, the principle be affirmed that fees, though levied monthly for the convenience of students, are to be regarded as payments for a term, and that a student has no right to a certificate from his college for any term until the whole fee for that term is paid.**
- (13) That as the fees in the Presidency College of Madras are considerably lower than those which it is found practicable to levy in the Presidency Colleges of Calcutta and Bombay, the Government of Madras be invited to consider the advisability of enhancing the rate of fees in that college.**
- (14) That the Local Governments and Administrations be invited to consider whether it is necessary to assign for scholarships, tenable in Arts colleges, a larger proportion of the provincial grant for education than two per cent.**
- (15) That scholarship-holders, as such, be not exempted from payment of the ordinary fees.**
- (16) That the Local Governments be invited to consider the advisability of appropriating, where necessary, a certain sum for the establishment of scholarships tenable by graduates reading for the M.A. degree.**
- (17) That the Local Governments be invited to consider the advisability of establishing scholarships for distinguished graduates to enable them to proceed to Europe for the purpose of practically studying some branch of mechanical industry.**
- (18) That in place of the system existing in Madras, according to which the first twenty students at the University Entrance and E. A. Examinations are allowed to read free in any Government college, liberal provision be made for a system of scholarships open to general competition and tenable in any college.**
- (19) That the Government of Bombay be requested to consider whether all or some of the scholarships now restricted to the Elphinstone and Deccan Colleges may, with due regard to the circumstances under which they were originally founded, be made tenable at any affiliated college; and that if these scholarships cannot fairly be opened to general competition, they be awarded as far as possible to poor students who, but for the stipends, would be unable to continue their studies at college.**

CHAPTER VII

INTERNAL ADMINISTRATION OF THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT*

339. Introductory.—In the present Chapter we shall describe the constitution of the Education Department in the different Provinces of India; and shall consider the extent and character of its functions under the three heads of Direction or Control, Inspection, and Instruction. The question of control will lead us to examine the means that may exist for bringing the Department into closer relations with independent persons or bodies interested, equally with itself, in the progress of education; and for rendering accessible to it the fruits of their experience. Under inspection will be considered the possibility of associating with the officers of the Department such other voluntary agency as may prove to be available for that object; and we shall discuss the subject of examinations in the same general sense. The question of instruction involves that of text-books, which will be reviewed in the light of the Resolution of the Government of India, dated the 10th January 1881; and it will be considered what arrangements have been made, or are possible, “for teaching such subjects as may store the minds of the pupils in “secondary schools with useful and practical information.” In the course of the enquiry we shall suggest the measures that seem to us best calculated to promote the objects set forth in the various Educational Despatches, as well as those to which later and independent experience has pointed as worthy of attainment in regard to the internal constitution and administration of the Department. All these measures will be set forth in specific Recommendations at the close of this Chapter.

340. Constitution of the Education Department—In the second Chapter of this Report we have given some account of the establishment and constitution of the Education Department in the various Provinces of India. We proceed to describe it as it now exists. The Education Department in each Province consists of a Director of Public Instruction (under that or some other title); a staff, varying in strength in different Provinces, of inspecting officers of various grades; and a teaching staff rising from assistant teachers of primary schools up to Professors and Principals of colleges. The superior officers of the Department in each Province are arranged in a classified list, the particulars of which are given in the subjoined Table. Educational officers in Bengal were first graded in the year 1865, and within the next five or six years the same system was extended to the other Provinces of India.. The list does not include the Provincial Directors of Public Instruction, who receive salaries, in Bombay and Bengal, of Rs. 2,000 a month rising to Rs. 2,500 in ten years; in Madras, of Rs. 2,000 rising to Rs. 2,250 in five years; in the North-Western Provinces, of Rs. 2,000 fixed; and in the Punjab, of Rs. 1,500 rising to Rs. 2,000 in five years.

PBoYI2TCB.	1st class; Rs. 1,250 to Rs. 1,500.	2nd class; Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 1,250.	3rd class; Rs. 750 to Rs. 1,000.	4th class; Rs. 500 to Rs. 750.	TOTAL.
Madras	1	2	5	7	15
Bombay *	2	0	5	6	16
Bengal	2	6	11	20	39
North-Western Provinces and Ondb. . . .	1	4	3	6	14
Punjab . . .	• • •	2	3	7	8
Other Provinces	•	1	3	1	6
TOTAL *	8	18	30	43	98

The Table supplies the means of estimating the average value of a graded appointment in the Education Department throughout India, and the average expectation of income which a graded officer may entertain on entering the service. According to the method of calculation adopted by the Financial Department, the value of a graded appointment, the salary of which rises by annual increments, is the minimum salary *plus* two-thirds of the difference between the minimum and the maximum. It follows that the average value of a graded educational appointment is rather less than Rs. 900 a month. At this rate of pay it has been found possible to attract to an educational career in India many men of considerable distinction at the English Universities, and some of the highest- academical rank. It will be seen, however, that the prospects of promotion of educational officers, as estimated by the proportion of appointments in the lowest class to those in classes above the lowest, vary greatly in different Provinces. In Bombay, for example, where there are ten appointments in the three higher classes to six in the lowest, an officer's chance of promotion is nearly as 2 to 1. In Bengal, where there are 20 appointments in the lowest class and only 19 in the higher classes, he has scarcely an even chance of promotion. This inequality arises from the fact that the additional appointments made in recent years to the classified list of the Bengal Department have been nearly all in the fourth class. The point is one that appears to deserve attention in any reorganisation of the graded service. We have no information to show what are the ordinary prospects of promotion in other departments of the public service, and we therefore abstain from submitting any Recommendation on this point.

341. Conditions of Service of Graded Officers—We have already, in our Chapter on Collegiate Education, referred to the anomaly of requiring men, most of whom have received at the Universities of the United Kingdom a professional training of a special kind, to serve except in isolated cases the full term of 30 years before they are eligible for a good service pension. Educational officers come under the general designation of “uncovenanted servants,” and their term of service for pension is governed by the rules generally applicable to that comprehensive class of public officers. There is no doubt that educational officers have suffered in this respect by the application to them of a name originally intended to denote a body of men with far other qualifications and duties. There appears to be some hardship in requiring the English graduate, selected by the Secretary of State and employed in this country as a Principal of a College or an Inspector of Schools, to serve (unless he has been appointed after the age of 25) for the same term as an uncovenanted servant who is a native of India. The latter begins his public life at an earlier age; he does his work in the country in which he was born and in a climate congenial to his constitution; and when he retires from service there will be no revolution in his mode of living. With the former all these things are very different; and if the conditions of service are to be at all equalised, it would follow that the European officer should enjoy the right of retiring to his native country at an age when the harassing circumstances of life in India have not impaired his health or destroyed his energy. We have already, in Chapter VI, recommended the reduction of the term qualifying for a good service pension in the case of Professors of Colleges; and we only recur to it here as being applicable in the same sense and on the same grounds to other officers of the graded educational service.

342. Admission of Natives of India to the Graded Service.—The graded service was at the outset intended to attract competent men from the English Universities; but as natives of India have shown themselves qualified for higher work in the Education Department, they have of late years been pro-

moted to the graded service in increasing numbers. In Bengal, out of a total of 39 officers, 7 are natives of India ; and one of them has shown such eminent capacity for educational work of the most responsible kind that he has won his way to the first class of the service. In other Provinces the number of native graded officers is smaller ; but in all the larger Departments some are found. We have already recommended the more extended employment of Indian graduates as Professors of Colleges, and we shall hereafter make a similar Recommendation with regard to Inspectorships. Meanwhile, there is one suggestion of a general character which we wish to offer, in the hope of removing what appears to be an unintended hardship, and has certainly been the cause of much disappointment. According to recent orders of the Secretary of State, a native officer when appointed to the graded service is allowed to draw only two-thirds of the ordinary pay of the grades. It has happened in more than one instance that the officer so promoted already draws a salary of Rs. 500 a month, which is the minimum pay of the fourth class on the ordinary scale. Consequently, his promotion to that class on the reduced scale involves a considerable reduction in his income. We accordingly recommend *that when an educational officer enters the higher graded service of the Education Department, his promotion should not involve any loss of pay.*

343. Subordinate Graded Service in Bengal and Bombay.—In Bengal not only the higher but the subordinate officers of the Department are formed into a graded service. This change was made in 1878, when 316 officers, drawing salaries of Rs. 50 a month and upwards, were arranged in the following classified list:—

Class	Number of Officers.	Salary. Ks.
I	6	400 to 500
II	10	300 „ 400
III	25	200 „ 300
>>IV	40	150 M 200
Y	60	100 „ 150
VI	75	75 » 100
VII	100	50 „ 75

in not very different proportions, and a certain number of ministerial officers as well. Additions are made to the list as new appointments are created; and promotion takes place on the combined grounds of seniority, good service, and fitness for higher duties.

In Bombay, since the year 1864, all the subordinate officers of the Department in the receipt of salaries ranging from Rs. 30 to Rs. 300 a month have been graded in five classes. The Deputy Inspectors, 30 in number, form a separate graded service, and each of them is *ex-officio* accorded the title of “ Rao Sahib ” or “ Khan Sahib ”⁵

344. Directing staff of the Department—At *the head of the Education Department in each Province is an officer generally styled the Director of Public Instruction. In the Central Provinces he is called the Inspector General of Education, and in Assam the Inspector of Schools. In every Province except Coorg, where the Education Department is now administered directly by the Chief Commissioner, the general control of education in all its branches is in the hands of the Director. He prepares the educational estimates, controls the distribution of the grant-in-aid allotment, makes or recommends appointments and transfers of officers within the Department, and is the constituted adviser of Government in all matters connected with education. Outside the ordinary business of administration* in which the functions of the Director are com-

monly well-defined, any questions of special importance or involving points of educational policy, are referred by him for the decision of the Local Government. But a further and a much more complete opportunity of declaring its general policy in educational matters is afforded to the Local Government in the annual review of the Director's Report on Public Instruction. This review is widely published, and is discussed with close attention in the newspapers both native and European. There is probably no subject in which the native public takes a keener or more intelligent interest; and in this way the Government is periodically brought into contact with public opinion upon its educational policy. In the Punjab there is a special means by which one section of public opinion is brought to bear upon educational questions. The Senate of the Punjab University is regularly consulted by the Government of that Province upon all matters relating to education, including primary instruction.

345. **Proposed Changes in the System of Control.**—It has been suggested by the Hon'ble Mr. Justice West that “in order to bring about a complete understanding between the University and the Department of Public Instruction, there ought to be a central Educational Board for each great Province, to which all important questions of principle should be referred. On this Board in Bombay there should be two or three representatives of the University, as well as two officials (one the Director of Public Instruction) and two others appointed either by co-optation or at the discretion of Government in order to make room for the casual possessor of special qualifications. To this Board the proposed courses of instruction in the higher secondary schools should be submitted each half-year, in order, without excluding local and personal initiative, to preserve a general balance of studies. To the same Board reports of the history and progress of each college and superior school should be submitted from time to time for consideration. Its advice should be taken on every proposed alteration of system. It should be consulted on the allocation of funds amongst institutions and subjects. Through the University and a Board thus constituted public opinion would be brought to bear with due force on the educational system in its more general features.” Dr. Leitner in his evidence before the Commission has suggested that the State, after making provision for aiding every variety of sound instruction, should leave “the conduct of higher education to the Universities, who should not be mere examining bodies but, like the Punjab-University College, supreme teaching and literary bodies, and the consulting bodies of Government in all matters of education; and the more direct control and supervision of primary and secondary education to local Educational Boards. This course is the most economical one, and will develop a true educational growth in the country.⁵⁴ In another portion of his evidence, Dr. Leitner expresses an opinion, that, “with the abolition of the Directorship and the Inspectorships, a new spirit would come over the land. Schools would spring up in every direction by local munificence, and all that is good in Eastern civilisation would ally itself by a natural process with all that is adaptable in Western progress.⁵⁵ The Anjuman-i-Islamiya in the Punjab has likewise proposed that the duties of the Director should be transferred to “District Boards under the direction of the Senate of the Local University.” The Anjuman also proposes that the present Inspectorships and Assistant Inspectorships should be abolished, but adds that “an Inspector, with the designation of Educational Secretary to the Government of Punjab, must be retained to represent the Education Department and to act as a medium between the Government and the Local Boards.⁵⁵ Certain Missionaries in the Punjab, who have sent in a joint statement containing answers to some of the questions proposed by the Commission, suggest “that the Provincial Directorship should be abolished, and one Minister of Education appointed for

“ the whole of India. The Senior Inspector of each Province, in addition to his “ inspection duties, might have special powers granted him for dealing with “ special provincial difficulties.” The Revd. G. Shirt, of Haidarabad in Sind, also suggests the abolition of the office of Director of Public Instruction, and the substitution of “an Educational Under-Secretary to Government on a “ less salary.” Dr- Rajendralal Mitra, writing about the Presidency of Bengal, is of opinion that the functions of the Director, as authoritatively laid down by Sir George Campbell, are such that there is no longer any necessity for maintaining that office. Dr. Mitra thinks that the Universities should now be the advisers of Government on higher education; that the Principals of colleges—in consultation with College Committees in the case of Mofussil colleges—should have full power to manage the details connected with the institutions under them * and that primary and secondary schools should be made over to the charge of Local and District Boards, which should appoint their own inspecting officers. The central educational office, he considers, should form part of the Secretariat and be presided over by an Under-Secretary to Government.

346. Character of the proposed Changes.—The proposals made in the foregoing extracts are chiefly four:—(1) the association with the Director in each Province of a Consulting Board of Education; (2) the transfer to the Universities of a large portion of the control now exercised by the Department; (3) the similar transfer of control to District Boards or other local bodies; (4) the abolition of the Provincial Directorships. Of these proposals the last two may be briefly dismissed. The transfer of control to local bodies is discussed at length in Chapter IV, and will be further referred to in Chapter VIII. The proposal to abolish the Provincial Directorships found no support in the Commission, and was not even suggested as a matter for discussion. Our Recommendations are based on the explicit assumption independent position of the Provincial Directors will [W' ijaiptW' fiind throughout our Report we have laid stress on the neces^fe.pf □ widest discretion to Local Governments, and of avoiding eT^g^a^tfen-tralise educational administration.

347. Extension of the Functions of the University—The advantage of giving to the Universities wider powers, whether of advice or of control, is a larger question. In the Punjab, as we have seen, the functions of the newly-constituted University are not confined, as they are elsewhere, to the single duty of examination. The Punjab University is also a teaching and controlling body, recognised adviser of the Government in all matters connected with education. An endeavour to enlarge the functions of the Calcutta University was made some years ago under the following circumstances, though without final — Tt. t68 Sir William Muir, Lieutenant-Governor of the North- iSrtaS, addressed a letter to the Government of Mi. in rticl he urged the desirability of extending and increasing in those Provinces the influence of the Calcutta University, of offering greater encouragement to the Rtudv of oriental literature, and of conducting some part of the examinations □ t£c vernacular. The letter was forwarded to the University for consideration • and the Vice-Chancellor, Sir E. C. Bayley, proposed, with the object of living effect to the Lieutenant-Governor's views, that the Entrance examination should be held optionally in the vernacular, and that a classical language should be made alternative with English at that examination. Neither of these proposals was ultimately adopted; but after prolonged discussion and r*nn cn 1 tation with the various Local Governments, the educational officers Ibordinate to them, and the heads of affiliated institutions, the following SSSTw ia December 1871 adopted by the Senate That for the

“better encouragement of vernacular education and literature, an examination in vernaculars be instituted by the University, on the plan of the middle-class examinations conducted by the British Universities.” The holding of this examination, with the rules for its conduct, was sanctioned by the Governor General in Council in January 1872, and it was decided to hold the first examination in November 1873. The standard comprised the following subjects, all being confined to the vernacular. The compulsory subjects were (1) a vernacular language ; (2) the history and geography of India, with general geography; (3) elementary mathematics, including arithmetic, algebra to simple equations, and two books of Euclid with easy deductions. The optional subjects, not more than two of which might be taken up, were (1) Sanskrit; (2) Arabic; (3) Persian; (4) mensuration and surveying, with practical geometry ; (5) the elements of statics, hydrostatics, and pneumatics; (6) physical geography and the elements of astronomy. Had these arrangements been carried out, the influence of the University would have been brought to bear on the whole field of vernacular education; and it was hoped that the standard, popularity, and success of vernacular schools, when thus taken under the protection of the University, would exhibit a rapid and marked improvement which could not fail to re-act beneficially on vernacular literature. But before any steps could be taken for carrying out these measures, the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, Sir George Campbell, expressed in strong terms the objections that he felt to transferring to the University the control of middle-class education, the cost of which was provided by the Local Government. The examinations, he also showed, could not be carried out without the assistance of the Bengal Educational officers, and he was reluctant to give his consent to their employment in carrying into effect a scheme of the advantages of which he was far from convinced. In the face of the opposition thus raised by the Government most largely affected by the proposed measure, the scheme dropped; and nothing further in this direction has since been attempted either by the University of Calcutta or, so far as is known to the Commission, by the other two Universities. A question was also raised at the time whether any such extension of their functions was in accordance with the provisions of the Act of Incorporation, which declares the object of their institution to be that of “ascertaining by means of examination the persons who have acquired proficiency in different branches of Literature, Science, and Art, and of rewarding them by Academical Degrees.* This however is a matter beyond the scope of our enquiries; and we have only referred to the discussions that took place some years since in Bengal, with the object of showing what has actually been done towards extending the functions of the University to the regulation and control of education below the collegiate stage.

348. Consulting Provincial Boards of Education.—Of the four proposals cited above, the only one which was made the subject of a definite Recommendation before the Commission, and which received full discussion, was that for the appointment of a Board of Education to assist and advise the Director of Public Instruction in each Province. The subject was debated at our meeting of the 23rd February 1883, when it was proposed “that a consultative Board of Education, consisting of representatives of the University, of the Department of Public Instruction, and of the community at large, be established in each Province, for the consideration of any general questions relating to education which may from time to time be referred to it by the Local Government, or which the Board itself may desire to bring to the notice of Government.” On behalf of the proposal it was urged that a Government department was by its constitution ill-adapted to follow with quick and sympathetic appreciation the varying movements of public opinion, or to make a ready response to new demands or

new impulses which would force it out of the traditional and official groove. The appointment of the proposed Board would be attended with a double advantage. ^ It would, on the one hand, bring about and maintain a complete understanding between the Department and the University; and on the other, it would be in a position, as representing the feelings and wishes of the community at large, to aid the Department with information and advice on educational questions of every kind. The value of allying public opinion with the operations of Government was admitted on all hands, but that opinion was now without organisation ; the proposed Board would organise it on all matters relating to education. The Board would not interfere with the administrative powers of the Director of Public Instruction, but would be a consultative body merely. It was also thought desirable that a Central Board should be established, to which the various local Boards now to be constituted in each Province might look up for guidance.

The motion was opposed on the following grounds : It was urged that the appointment of a Central Board, whether vested with actual authority or merely consultative, was at best an unsatisfactory expedient. In the first place, to give the proposed Board any real power over higher education would be premature, and over lower education dangerous. The day might come when the people of India would manage their own educational systems, and rely less on the direct instrumentality of Government. But at present, since the chief provision for higher education was made by the Government, the Department must express the voice and the decisions of Government, and not those of a Central Board. With regard to primary education the case was different The Government proposed to transfer its control to a number of Local Boards, which were to have real authority over funds for the most part locally raised. To overshadow these Boards by the authority of an external body, which would reflect the opinion of the metropolis and not that of the rural districts, would be to stifle local independence. Direct departmental control was a better alternative than control by a Central Board, inasmuch as the former would at any rate be based on that wide local information which a Government ^department alone could command. In the second place, if the functions of the Board were to be merely consultative, the objections to it were equally strong. Whatever other advantages might attend it, the establishment of a Board whose duties were limited to advising the Director was incompatible with the conditions under which alone a great department of Government could be administered. It was in the highest degree essential that the Education Department should on the one hand work in full co-operation with the University, and on the other that it should respond to the movements of educated opinion and to the reasonable desires of different sections of the community, scattered over the Districts and towns of the Province. The first object could be attained without the intervention of a Board, on which many interests besides those of the University were represented. The second promised indeed to be secured by the appointment of a representative Board, but the benefit would be purchased at the price of efficient administration. To interpose a consultative Board between the Government and its responsible officer would be to destroy responsibility and to replace expedition by delay. A Board such as that proposed must contain representatives of many conflicting interests; its members, must include men of various creeds; advocates of the higher and advocates of the lower education; representatives of departmental agency, and representatives of private effort; delegates from the Districts as well as residents in the Presidency Towns. A Board so composed would be perpetually engaged in the discussion of first principles; and if action were to wait on their settlement by the Board, prompt action would be impossible.

It was essential to efficient administration that the responsibility of the head of the Department to the Government should be absolute. But with the intervention of a Board between the Director and the Government, the responsibility of the former would practically disappear. These arguments prevailed; and the proposal was rejected, though only by a narrow majority. It may be added that in our opinion the true remedy for the evils pointed out is for the Department to regard it as its first duty to keep touch with public opinion; to maintain a vigilant and at the same time a sympathetic watch upon the various movements taking place outside the departmental system; to recognise the fact that "departmentalism" is, or may easily become, an evil; and to seek to imbue all its officers with the liberal spirit conformable to these principles. When there are conflicting interests, it is for the Department to steer a clear course among them; recognising what is good in each, and treating all on broad grounds of justice and liberality. If it fails in that great duty, the Government is at hand to correct its deficiencies. The Government is already brought into effective contact with public opinion on all great questions of educational policy; and it may be fairly anticipated that one result of the Commission's labours will be to infuse into the policy of the future still greater liberality and vigour.

349. Educational Conferences.—At the same time we are fully convinced that nothing but good can result from the occasional or even frequent association, in a somewhat formal way, of departmental officers with others interested in education. Under present arrangements, the relations of departmental officers to each other and to persons outside the Department are too exclusively confined to official correspondence; and no opportunity is given for that free interchange of ideas which personal intercourse can alone or can best secure. To aid in the attainment of the latter object, and to bring the Department into healthy contact with outside opinion, we recommend the institution of periodical conferences, at which educational officers and others may meet and exchange their views. We do not propose to define what degree of authority should attach to these conferences; but it is clear that any conclusions to which they may be led will possess more weight if they receive the formal recognition of Government. We therefore recommend *that conferences (i) of officers of the Education Department, and (2) of such officers with managers of aided and unaided schools, be held from time to time for the discussion of questions affecting education the Director of Public Instruction being in each case ex-officio President of the conference. Also that Deputy Inspectors occasionally hold meetings of the schoolmasters subordinate to them, for the discussion of questions of school management.*

350. Provision of other educational Facilities.—Connected with the last Recommendation is another, having for its object the establishment in each Province of an educational library or museum; at which might be collected, for purposes of reference by those interested in the subject, works relating to education in all countries, the chief text-books used in the schools of England and of the different Provinces of India, and specimens or models of the apparatus and appliances of instruction chiefly in vogue. The utility of such a collection to educational officers and to managers of schools is obvious. To all these it would be a great advantage to have an opportunity, such as is afforded in England by the Kensington Museum or the National Society's Depository at Westminster, of comparing different grammars and histories, of looking at the newest copy-book, and of inspecting models of school furniture. Nor is it anticipated that the establishment of such a central library and museum would be attended with

any great expense. These institutions once known, it is believed that authors, publishers, and those engaged in the production of school appliances, would readily send specimens of their publications and apparatus, in view of the advantages offered by such a mode of advertising. We therefore recommend that a general educational library and museum be formed at some suitable locality in each Province. It has also been pointed out that educational newspapers and magazines in the vernacular are often of great service to managers of schools, especially vernacular schools of the better class, in making them acquainted with new text-books or new methods and appliances of teaching, or with recent orders of Government on educational matters; and that such newspapers often languish for want of moderate support. We have therefore added to the foregoing Eecommendation the following clause; and that encouragement be given to school papers or magazines conducted in the vernacular.

351. **Relation of the Department to Schools in Competition—**An important and delicate part of the functions which the Department must discharge, if the different agencies at work in education are to be duly co-ordinated and harmonised, has now to be considered. One main intention of the Despatch of 1854 was to secure for the educational efforts of the State the help of private individuals and private bodies, and to give every scope and encouragement to the work of these agencies. Such a scheme is fitted to do and has done much for the spread of education; but, like all other schemes, it must be taken with the defects of its qualities. A defect inseparable from it is its tendency to cause schools to spring up, not always where they are most required, but rather where men or bodies happen to exist that are ready to exert themselves for the public good. Thus there is some danger of a clashing of interests and a waste of power; some danger of disorganisation through excessive supply of the means of education in one place and deficiency of such means in others. Some regulating authority is indispensable if this danger is to be minimised. The Department is the only body that can possibly exert such controlling power, and the Provincial Reports indicate that it is everywhere regarded as the proper regulating authority. The Bombay Report mentions that one at least of the reasons for withdrawing the grant offered for passing the matriculation examination was that the hope of obtaining the grant sometimes led one school to use questionable means for attracting clever pupils from another. The Bengal Report says that to a new school that is set up beside an old one, the Department gives or refuses aid according as it judges that the establishment of a second school will be beneficial or hurtful in its effects. And in the Report for the Central Provinces it is said that if one aided school was found to be injuring another by undue lowering of fees, the Department would feel bound to interfere. Thus it is understood that the Department possesses the regulating power that is required, though in its peculiar position as directly managing one class of schools and only indirectly controlling others, it has naturally been somewhat reluctant to exert it.

352. **Regulations in Force, and Opinions of Witnesses,—**We shall recur again to the subject of fees; but there are other ways in which the mutual relations of schools need to be regulated with care. In towns where there are several schools,—and it is only in them that competition need be considered,—there is a danger of discipline being injured and the tone of education lowered by too keen a competition for pupils. The desire also that pupils commonly feel to be placed in the highest class they can get admitted to, causes considerable danger of their changing their schools so often that steady progress is greatly interfered with. This danger is recognised and some provision made against it in all Provinces. In the town of

Madras and in some other large towns of that Province, the heads of most of the leading institutions act upon a code of rules for the admission and transfer of pupils; and their action is so far recognised by the Department, that the Director's standing orders enjoin that wherever schools are in competition, endeavours he made to introduce the Madras rules with such modifications as local circumstances require. In Bengal* the Department has prevailed on the managers of a large number of schools to adopt a similar code, and, when once adopted, any infringement of it renders the pupils of the offending school liable to exclusion from Government junior scholarships. In the North-Western Provinces a similar arrangement exists, though generally confined to Government institutions- In the other Provinces the arrangements appear to be less precise, though in most colleges and high schools there seems to be either a declared agreement or a tacit understanding that pupils are not admitted without a certificate from their former place of education, or some other satisfactory proof that there is no improper reason for their seeking admission.

The question intended to bring out the opinion of witnesses on this point was: "Are there any arrangements between colleges and schools of your Province to prevent boys who are expelled from one institution, or who leave it improperly, from being received into another? What are the arrangements which you would suggest?"⁵⁵ The question has been answered by above sixty witnesses, all of whom except some nine or ten speak more or less strongly of the need of systematic arrangements to prevent irregular admission. But even of those who do not altogether favour such arrangements, not more than three or four decidedly oppose them. The rest merely doubt whether proper rules can be practically enforced, or they express the fear that rules may be so strict as to infringe on the proper liberty of pupils and their guardians. Of this there is obviously some danger. It is far from desirable to allow no change in the place of education, or to give teachers the power of forcibly retaining pupils whose guardians wish them to be transferred. In any code of rules that may be enforced this danger should be guarded against. In Bengal the Inspector of Schools is the constituted referee in cases of dispute, and his decisions have been readily accepted. The following is the general character of the definite rules that have been tried and found to work well. They provide that at certain times—once or twice in the year—pupils may go, without leave asked or given, to any school they please; that changes are allowed at other than the specified times only at the express desire of guardians and with permission from the head-master of the school that is left; that in ordinary circumstances a pupil is not to be placed in a higher class in the school he joins than he would have belonged to had he continued in his former school; and that before his admission to a new school the fees due to his former school are all paid up. The rules aim at leaving sufficient freedom, and yet at securing the maintenance of discipline and the discouragement of unreasonable changes,

353. Recommendation for definite Rules.—The weak point of all the arrangements at present in force is that they are voluntary or semi-voluntary, and that thus a new manager or head-master who does not feel himself bound by the engagements of his predecessor may introduce confusion at any time. Again, in the absence of any definite rule or agreement to the contrary, a head-master may often find himself practically compelled to admit a boy to his school, with the full knowledge that his action may turn to his own disadvantage in similar circumstances hereafter. Thus the hold of all headmasters upon their pupils is relaxed, and discipline suffers. It would obviate these dangers if all institutions connected in any way with the Department could be brought to accept a definite set of rules. No doubt much tact and patience would be needed when such rules first came into operation; but in a few years they

might become a well-understood part of school management, and would require little or no trouble to enforce. Indeed we believe that, in the vast majority of cases, head-masters would cordially welcome any rules which, by limiting their discretion as to admissions, would greatly strengthen their position. The gain in teaching lessons of steadiness and perseverance to pupils and in improving discipline would be very great. *Also—what we value even more—the enforcement of such rules would draw schools under all kinds of management closer together, would make their relations with the Department more intimate, and would tend powerfully to develop the feeling that all schools are working for a common end and should have no rivalry except in promoting the interests of the entire community. We therefore recommend that managers of schools in competition be invited by the Department to agree to rules providing, as far as the circumstances of the locality allow, (1) that, except at specified times, a pupil of one school be not admitted to another without a certificate from his previous school; (2) that any fees due to that school have been paid; and (3) that he do not obtain promotion to a higher class by changing his school,*

354. Policy of the Department in regard to Fees—The advisability of raising the rates of fees to the highest point consistent with the continued spread of education has been repeatedly acknowledged. It is, if not only, yet chiefly, by this means that Government institutions of the higher class will be enabled to approach the self-supporting stage, a result to which many educational Despatches look forward; and also that privately-managed institutions will attain to greater efficiency and success. It is a case, moreover, in which the initiative of the Department is essential. We have elsewhere maintained the principle that of two schools of the same standard of instruction and in the same locality, the departmental school should as a rule charge higher fees; and any general increase in the rates will be subject to this condition* If the Department shows the way, private managers will in general be eager to follow; if the Department is supine, they can take no active steps to increase their income without risk of serious injury. The policy which we recommend has its natural and necessary limits in the fact that any increase in fees beyond the capacity of the people to pay them will result in a loss of pupils, and thus defeat the object it is intended to secure; and this condition is sufficiently provided for in our Recommendation, which refers chiefly to the higher class of institutions. *We recommend that it be an instruction to the Departments of the various Provinces to aim at raising fees gradually, cautiously, and with due regard to necessary exemptions, up to the highest amount that will not check the spread of education, especially in colleges, secondary schools, and primary schools in towns where the value of education is understood.*

355. Classification of Schools: Statistical Returns—Our attention has been drawn to the multiplicity of the annual and other returns that are required from schools in some Provinces; and the necessity for such requisitions has been variously attributed to the local Departments and to the general orders of the Government of India. But the orders of the Supreme Government on this subject in 1879 were issued with the declared object of simplifying educational forms; and though reasonable exception has been taken to them in other respects, there appears to be no ground for ascribing to those orders the unnecessary complexity which is alleged to exist. Again, strong opposition has been raised to the use of the term “private institutions/* when applied to those schools and colleges which conform in every respect to the regulations and standards of the Education Department. The term is held to convey an invidious distinction and to imply that these schools are not only under private management but that they serve no public purpose. We therefore propose to apply in future the

term “public schools” to all schools which form a regular and recognised part of the system of public instruction. Hence a school which is not under the management of the Department or of a Local or Municipal Board, and which has hitherto been classed as a “private school/” should now, if it forms part of the recognised State system, be classed as a “public school under private management/* All privately-managed schools that are in receipt of aid or are regularly inspected by the Department will come within this class. The class will also include any institutions which, though neither aided nor inspected, regularly send pupils to the examinations of the Department or of the University, participate in the benefits of the scholarship system, and therefore form an essential part of the system of public instruction. The Metropolitan Institution of Calcutta, a college which is neither aided nor inspected, which teaches the full course for the B. A. degree, and whose pupils are nearly as numerous as those of the Government Presidency College, has, it is held, as good a right as the latter to the title of a public institution. Under this definition, private institutions will include all indigenous schools which have not accepted the departmental standards of instruction; and all others in which the course of instruction, however advanced, does not conform to the standards prescribed or accepted by the Department or by the University, and which submit to no public test. All such schools should be shown in a class by themselves, nor do we think it necessary that the returns should exhibit any statement of their financial condition. We need not dwell at any greater length on these proposals, since they have been made the basis of the Report independently submitted by the Committee appointed for the Revision of Educational Forms. Our Recommendations under this head are as follows :—

- {a) That the Education Department of each Province limit its call for returns (2) to such as the Government may require, and {2) to such others as are indispensable for information and control;*
- (J) (I)** *That all schools managed by the Department or by Committees exercising statutory powers, and all other schools that are regularly aided or inspected, or that send pupils to the examinations of the University or of the Department {other than examinations which are conducted by the Department for admission to the public service), be classed as public schools, and sub-divided into departmental, aided and unaided; (2) that all other schools furnishing returns to the Department be classed as private schools; and (3) that all other details of classification be referred to the Statistical Committee appointed by the Government of India ;*
- (c) That no attempt be made to furnish financial returns for private schools.*

We may call attention to the fact that we propose to exclude from the class of public schools those which merely prepare pupils for the examinations which in some Provinces regulate admission to the public service; since these examinations, though often conducted by the Department, have not in all cases any definite relation to the ordinary standards of instruction.

356. **Inspecting Staff of the Department**—The number of departmental inspecting officers of different classes, the number of schools under their charge, and the work done by them in each Province of India, are shown in the subjoined Table. Besides the officers of the Department, there are also other agencies more or less systematically engaged in the inspection of schools. They consist of officers of Government outside the Education Department; of local bodies and school committees of various kinds; and of different forms of private agency. These will be exhibited in detail in the account to be presently given of the inspecting agency in each Province.

Inspection of Schools in 1881-83.

NAME OF PROVINCE.	Designation of Inspecting Officers.	Number of Inspecting Officers.	Average area in Square miles allotted to each Inspecting Officer.	Average number of Schools under the charge of each Inspecting Officer.	Average number of Schools examined <i>in situ</i> .	Average number of Schools examined at centres.	Total average number of Schools examined.	Total average number of Scholars examined.	Average number of days spent on tour.	Average number of miles travelled.
MAHARASHTRA*	Inspectors Deputy Inspectors*	2 55	23,198 3,088	2,545 266	187 not returned	not returned	187 not returned	7,500 not returned	192 164	2,405 1,706
BOMBAY	Inspectors Deputy Inspectors Assistant Deputy Inspectors	5 30 19	38,128 7,645 3,834	1,134 211 101	139 1*5 109	53 1* 18	173 126 127	7,535 3,989 3,087	344 328 310	3,705 1,891 1,359
BHARATPUR	Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors Deputy Inspectors Sub-Inspectors	10 43 173	18,722 3,539 874	197 1,301 313	103 177 189	not returned 260 15	102 437 34*	not returned ditto ditto	132 ISO 201	3,560 3,058 935
NORTH WEST PROVINCE OHBA AND OHBI	Inspectors Deputy Inspectors Sub-Deputy Inspectors	8 1 44 34	13,344 34,346 3,566 3,599	735 1,343 140 129	106 167 270 213	393 67 37	399 234 297 253	7,734 0,694 6,256 5,485	117 117 267 245	1,312 345 584 898
PUJAB	Inspoctora and Assistant inspectors District Inspoctora uno Chief School Mobarirs	7 30	15,417 30,500	3*6 4*	not returned 184	not returned	296 184	not returned 2,170	140 200	2,809 1,500
CANDHAR	Inspector-General, inspectors District and Joint Inspectors	1 3 30	61,448 8,148 4,323	1,444 481 73	120 319 219	not returned	120 319 219	not returned	157 210 319	3,430 2,950 3,101
ASSAM	Inspector Deputy Inspectors Sub-Inspectors	1 9 H	4,634 4,133 1,783	1,455 158 75	not returned ditto	not returned ditto	not returned ditto	not returned ditto	201 142 162	not returned 1,885 3,335
COCHIN	Inspoctors Sub-Deputy Inspector	1 1	1583 J,883	63 51	40 51	not returned	40 5*	not returned 2,63 a	not returned 178	47a 999
HARYANA ABBIQND DISTRICTS, E	Inspector Deputy Inspectors	1 7	17,71* 5,060	32 139	a 2 J*7	not returned	33 117	3,969 4,299	154 163	3,142 1,361
TOTAL	Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors Deputy Inspector* Sub-Deputy in spec tort	4? *4*	*4*4*7 4, an *5*3*	88a *9* *33	*8* 386 140	*3.7 09	*19 230 18	6,686 4,178 3934	169 198 203	*13 1,87* 1,66S

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*No returns available to show the work done by the Deputy Inspector of Schools in Madras.
 + No return available to show the work done by the Inspector and Deputy Inspectors of Schools in Madras.
 :: No return available to show the work done by the Inspector and Deputy Inspectors of Schools in Madras.
 Th* Inspector and the Principal of the Merkara High School.
 Including with Burma and all Native States that administer their own systems of education.
 Excluding the Inspector and Deputy Inspectors of Schools in Andhra Pradesh.

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357. Work done by Inspecting Officers.—In all India there are 45 Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors, 238 Deputy Inspectors, and 241 Sub-Inspectors. Each Inspector or Assistant Inspector, whose jurisdiction extends over many Districts, has an average of 882 schools under his charge. Deputy Inspectors are commonly in charge of Districts, and Sub-Inspectors or Sub-Deputy Inspectors in charge of sub-divisions of Districts; and, except in Bengal, where the Deputy Inspector has 1,300 schools, under his general supervision, though they do not all come under his immediate inspection, each of these officers is entrusted with the superintendence on an average of 133 schools. The returns of work done are not complete; but so far as they go, it appears that each inspecting officer examined in 1881-82 an average of from 140 to 180 schools *situ*, besides in many Provinces a further number at central gatherings. The total number of schools thus coming under the immediate inspection of each officer was about 200 in the year. Each Inspector and Assistant Inspector also spent about 170 days on tour, and travelled more than 2,000 miles; while each subordinate officer spent on an average 200 days on tour, travelling something less than 2,000 miles. As will be seen from the Table, there are differences in detail between different Provinces and different classes of officers; but the summary just given exhibits the broad facts of inspectional work in India, and also furnishes a convenient if rough test of activity. It may be noticed that in the Punjab, owing to accidental interruptions, the number of days spent by the Inspectors on tour in 1881-82 was considerably below the average of ordinary years, which for the three preceding years was 180 days. Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors have the general superintendence of a large tract of country and a large number of schools, only a small proportion of which they can personally inspect. The detailed inspection of these schools is carried out by the local officers, the Deputy and Sub-Inspectors; and, speaking generally, it may be stated that, except in Bengal, all the schools under their charge come under their personal inspection at least once a year. In Madras and Bombay there is a definite Code of rules for the guidance of inspecting officers in the examination of schools. In other Provinces the method and character of the examination is governed by general instructions that have been issued from time to time by the Department, and much is left to the discretion of individual officers.

358. Inspecting Agency in Madras*—The staff consists of 7 Inspectors of Circles and 55 Deputy Inspectors. There is also a class of officers termed “inspecting schoolmasters/³ whose duty is rather to assist village teachers in their work than to inspect; and they would more correctly be described as “itinerating circle schoolmasters/⁵ There is no regular inspection by other officers of Government; nor is there any inspection by school committees. The only bodies that can be so styled are Local Fund Boards and Municipalities. These manage the schools that they maintain, but they do not inspect or report upon them. No private agencies are engaged in the work of inspection. Government institutions and those maintained from Municipal and Local Funds are visited once a year by the Circle Inspector, who, aided by the Deputy Inspector, examines the primary classes and reports upon them to the Director. In middle schools the classes are examined at shorter intervals by the Deputy Inspector. Those classes which are to be subjected during the year to any of the public examinations are not usually examined by the Inspector. In aided high and middle schools the Inspector examines all classes, with the exception of those reading for the middle school and the matriculation examinations. His examination of high and middle schools, whether departmental or aided, is to be such as will enable him “to form a judgment on the conduct “of instruction in each class, its discipline and tone.” In primary schools aided

on the results-system, a careful examination under the several standards is carried out by the Inspector in the presence of the managers. For those aided on the salary-grant system a much less detailed examination is prescribed. The annual examination of the more elementary schools is conducted by the Deputy Inspector, who is also required to visit them at least once in the interval between two examinations. The inspecting schoolmaster should visit the elementary schools under him once a quarter, in order to give the teachers frequent help in adapting their instruction to the authorised standards and methods; but the staff is as yet insufficient to carry out this scheme in its integrity. No formal examination is made of superior schools "not under inspection"; but it is the practice of the departmental officers to visit such schools should the managers desire it, and to aid them by advice. It is also the duty of the Deputy Inspectors and their assistants to visit indigenous schools and to endeavour to bring them under inspection by the offer of books and other help.

359. **Inspecting Agency in Bombay***—In Bombay the departmental staff comprises 5 Inspectors, 30 Deputy and 19 Assistant Deputy Inspectors. The Director of Public Instruction personally inspects a considerable number of primary and secondary schools in the course of his tour; and the Professors and Fellows of the Elphinstone and Deccan Colleges annually examine the upper classes of the Government high schools at Bombay and Poona. Outside the Department all District officers, from the Collector to the Mamlatdar, are required in the course of their annual tours to pay frequent visits of inspection to the primary schools situated within their respective charges; and they are occasionally present at the annual examination of the schools by the Deputy Inspector. School committees also take some part in the work of inspection. Every primary cess school is under the local supervision of a committee, consisting of the chief officers of the village or town and of other influential persons. The functions of the committee are to visit and occasionally to examine the school; to strengthen the hands of the master and keep him up to his work; to superintend the repairs of buildings; to collect subscriptions; and generally to secure the co-operation and support of the people in the maintenance of the school. Every cess-school is supplied with a book in which revenue officers and other visitors record the results of their inspection or examination* The missionary bodies that are engaged in educational work inspect their own schools, independently of any visits paid by departmental officers. They also occasionally visit the Government schools, and have in that way rendered valuable assistance to the Department.

Every cess-school and every Government secondary school is annually examined *in situ* by one or more of the educational officers, under the standards prescribed by the Department for each class. Aided schools, primary and secondary, are similarly examined by the Department, except that in every alternate year the examination is shorter and much less searching. The examination of primary schools is chiefly oral. That of secondary schools, being more elaborate, is for the most part conducted in writing. The order and discipline of the classes, as well as the efficiency of the teaching staff, are points to which the Inspector is required to attend. He also audits the school-accounts, and examines the state of the furniture and building, the library and apparatus. But the duties of the Inspector are not limited to the examination of secondary schools. The greater portion of his time is devoted to the control of primary education; and in his annual tour he is usually able to visit 150 of the cess and indigenous schools. The local committee generally attend the examination of the cess-school, and the visit is made the occasion of conferring with the

people upon school-matters. Much good is found to result from these informal conferences. When the examination of cess-schools is conducted by the Deputy Inspector, the results are forwarded to the Inspector through the District Collector. The results of the examination of secondary schools are submitted by the Inspector to the Director. The head-master of the school examined is furnished with a copy of the Inspector's report. The aided indigenous schools are annually examined by the inspecting officers; and the Inspectors and Deputy Inspectors take every opportunity, while on tour, of visiting the schools that are not aided by the Department.

360* **Inspecting Agency in Bengal.**—The regular departmental staff consisted on the 31st March 1882 of 5 Circle and 5 Assistant Inspectors, 43 Deputy and 173 Sub-Inspectors. One of the Circle Inspectors and all the Assistant Inspectors were natives of India. Two more Assistant Inspectors were sanctioned towards the end of the year, though not appointed until after its close. The Circle Inspector is the chief administrative officer of the Department in matters of secondary education, and is generally in charge of two Divisions, to each of which an Assistant Inspector is also commonly appointed. The Deputy Inspector is the chief educational officer in each District. He is subordinate to the Inspector in regard to secondary, and to the Magistrate in regard to primary education. His connection with primary schools is limited to general control, to organising and conducting the central examinations, and to seeing that the orders of the District Magistrate are carried out by the Sub-Inspectors. Of the last-named officers there are about four in each District. They are directly subordinate to the Magistrate, and are in immediate charge of primary schools, each of which they are generally required to visit *in situ* once a quarter. In many Districts the number of primary schools is too great for this requirement to be carried out; and* in 1881-82 there were no fewer than 16,000 indigenous schools which were not visited *in situ* by any officers of the regular inspecting staff. Accordingly, where the staff is insufficient, further provision for the local inspection of schools is made by the subordinate agency of "inspecting pandits" or "chief gurus," these last being teachers of superior primary schools who are charged with the additional duty of supervising all schools within a radius of five or six miles. This auxiliary supervision is described by the Government of Bengal as supplying a close network of organisation; it has been the means of bringing under departmental control a large number of indigenous schools; and though at best an imperfect substitute for a larger staff of regular inspecting officers, it will always have its uses. Outside the regular inspecting staff, the Magistrate of each District distributes and administers the primary grant under the general authority of the Director, to whom he furnishes an annual report on the primary education of the District. Schools of every class are also occasionally inspected by the revenue officers, from the Commissioner to the Assistant or Deputy Magistrate. The zila school of each District is under the general supervision of the District Committee of Education, and its members inspect and occasionally take part in the annual examination of the school. Every aided secondary school is under the management of a local committee. Officers of the Department are required to pay particular attention to the remarks and suggestions made by visitors of all these classes. An important element in the Bengal primary system, as initiated by Mr. Harrison in Midnapur and adopted in many other Districts that follow the method of payment-by-results, is the appointment of village committees to assist the inspecting officers of the Department in supervising and conducting the central examinations. These committees not only lend importance to the proceedings, and secure impartiality in the awards, but they also take a useful part in the examination and in the distribution of the rewards

earned. When visiting secondary schools, inspecting officers are required to note and report on the state of the school-building; the furniture and apparatus; the attendance of pupils and teachers; the finances of the school; the account books and registers; the state of the library; the salaries of the teachers, including the date up to which they have been paid; the discipline and organisation of the classes; the progress of pupils since the last visit; the success of the school at University or departmental examinations; and the competence of the teachers. When time allows, the examination is made individually boy by boy and class by class throughout the school. Quarterly inspection returns are submitted to superior officers in a prescribed form. Deputy Inspectors are required to be on tour for 15 days, and Sub-Inspectors for 20 days, in each month,

361. Inspecting Agency in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh ,—The staff consists of 8 Inspectors, 1 Assistant Inspector, 44 Deputy and 34 Sub-Deputy Inspectors. The duty of the Inspectors is to visit and report to the Director of Public Instruction upon aided schools (excepting certain schools for girls which are not open to their inspection); to manage and inspect zila and Normal schools; to inspect during the course of their annual tour, either *in situ* or at centres, all vernacular schools which are under the administrative charge of District Education Committees, that is, tahsili and halkabandi schools; and to report to the Committees the result of their examinations, with suggestions for improvement and for future guidance. It is the duty of the Deputy Inspector, as the executive officer of the District Committee, to manage and control all vernacular schools; and as the representative of the Inspector, to examine such schools and report on their condition. There is a Deputy Inspector to each District except Benares and Mirzapur, in which the number of vernacular schools is small. Sub-Deputies are appointed to assist the Deputy Inspectors in the larger Districts of the North-Western Provinces only. They have nothing to do with management, and can pass no order in any school. Generally it may be said that the departmental agency provides for the inspection of all aided and zila schools once a year, and of all vernacular schools from four to five times a year. During the hot weather, when the Inspectors are at head-quarters, they pay special attention to the Normal schools. Though all gazetted officers, from the Commissioner to the Tahsildar, are expected by Government to interest themselves in the progress of education, the extra-departmental bodies that the Government has most fully recognised and empowered for this purpose are the Education Committees, whose powers are defined by rule. The actual management of primary vernacular schools is in the hands of the official secretary and the Deputy Inspector, the duties of the Inspector being restricted to the direction of studies and to giving advice. There are no such committees in Oudh, where an Inspector and an Assistant Inspector are in direct charge of all departmental schools. The missionary bodies engaged in educational work in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh maintain some agency for the inspection and control of the schools under their charge; but beyond sending to the Director an annual return for such schools as receive aid, they make no report to the Department upon the working of their controlling or inspecting agency, nor do they take any part in general inspection.

362. Inspecting Agency in the Pmyah—There are in the Punjab four Inspectors of Circles, three Assistant Inspectors, 20 District Inspectors, and 10 chief school muharrirs. Few schools except the District schools are under the direct management of the Department, and the control of these is now being localised. The duty of the Inspectors and Assistants is to manage and inspect the District schools, to inspect and assist in the management of the schools,

chiefly vernacular, that are maintained from District and Municipal Funds, and to inspect schools under private management that receive grants-in-aid. The District Inspectors and school muharrirs are subordinate to the Deputy Commissioner, and their duty is to manage and inspect the schools which are under his charge as President of the District or Municipal Committee. As a rule, each District has either a District Inspector or a chief school muharrir, the latter being an officer of inferior rank to the District Inspector, but with the same duties* < Each District school is visited three times a year by an Inspector or an Assistant Inspector, and each aided school once. Every school is examined once in the year by an Inspector or an Assistant Inspector, either *in situ* or at centres. The schools are also inspected *in situ* once a quarter by the District Inspectors and school muharrirs. Schools are also occasionally visited by Deputy Commissioners and subordinate District officers, but the negligent way in which tahsildars discharge this duty is a common subject of complaint.

363- Inspecting Agency in the Central Provinces—The departmental staff consists of one Inspector General, 3 Inspectors of Circles, and 20 District Inspectors. The title of the head of the Department is intended to show that he is an inspecting, at least as much as a controlling officer. The Government College, and all Normal schools, high schools, and superior middle schools that are maintained by the Department are under the direct administration of the Inspector General and the Circle Inspectors. The duties of the latter officers are chiefly those of inspection, though they directly manage all superior schools, and have other administrative duties. The administrative control of all Government schools with the exceptions above noted, and the inspection of all indigenous schools that submit to inspection, are entrusted to the Deputy Commissioners, who are assisted in their educational work by the District Inspectors subordinate to them. Every Government school of whatever kind is under a school committee, of which the Deputy Commissioner is *ex-officio* President. The whole committee visits the school monthly, and one member is chosen by rotation to visit it weekly. In some cases the members examine the boys, but they are often too illiterate for this. Still their presence is said to have a useful effect in enabling them to look after attendance, to settle matters of discipline, and to arrange within certain limits the rates of fees. A very complete Code of rules has been issued for the guidance of school committees. The members of the various Missionary Societies throughout the Province also give great and valued help in educational work. The Free Church Mission conducts the middle school and the Entrance examinations for all the Marathi-speaking Districts of the Central Provinces. All inspecting officers are required not merely to examine schools, but to correct faulty methods of teaching and to see that the discipline of the school is good. They record fully in the minute-book of the schools the results of the examination, and add their remarks upon the discipline and the state of the building, furniture and apparatus. Each Circle Inspector after completing his tour in a District sends his report of the schools seen to the Deputy Commissioner. Both Circle and District Inspectors send monthly to the Inspector General an inspection report showing fully the schools visited, their state, and the qualifications of the teachers.

364. Inspecting Agency in the other Provinces—The system in Assam is organised on the same plan as that of Bengal. There is one Inspector of Schools, 9 Deputy and 14 Sub-Inspectors. The Sub-Inspectors are required to visit each primary school once a quarter. The Deputy Inspector visits each middle school once a quarter, and as many primary schools as he has time for. In Coorg and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts there is nothing in the system which calls for special notice.

365. Inspection of Girls' Schools.—Provision is made in some Provinces for the independent inspection of girls' schools by ladies. Thus in Madras, in Bombay and in Bengal, an Inspectress of Schools is employed; and at Poona and Ahmedabad in Bombay, the Lady Superintendents of the Training Colleges have the entire control of the local girls' schools. Travelling Inspectresses were formerly employed in the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab, but these appointments no longer exist. In a few of the larger cities and in their neighbourhood the girls' schools are inspected by ladies, most of whom belong to missionary societies. In the Central Provinces, where the seclusion of women is not generally enforced by public opinion, there is less need than elsewhere for the services of a travelling Inspectress.

366. Employment of Inspecting Officers at Head-quarters.—In addition to the duty of inspection, a large amount of administrative work involving considerable correspondence falls to the share of the superior officers of the Department. When they return to head-quarters at the close of their cold-weather tour, inspecting officers have much to occupy them in writing their annual reports, in the examination of Normal schools and the inspection of other schools at head-quarters, in conducting the public examinations prescribed by the Department, in preparing the educational estimates, in the revision of text-books, and in disposing of any of the larger questions that arise during the year. Frequent complaints have been made that the time of inspecting officers, especially of the superior officers, is too much taken up with office-work and correspondence. There appears to be solid ground for these complaints, and it is unquestioned that duties of the kind referred to have greatly increased of late years. At the same time it must be remembered that such duties are a necessary part of the Inspector's work when he is not only, as in England, an Inspector, but also the administrative officer of a large Department. In most parts of India, too, travelling with tents is impossible during many months of the year, and the Inspector is compelled either to remain at head-quarters, or to confine his journeys to places which can be reached by rail. This does not apply to certain parts of Bengal, where the Inspector travels by boat, and is consequently on tour in almost every month of the year. But in other parts of India it is necessary to utilise the time which the Inspector has to spend at his head-quarters, and with regard to that portion of his time there does not appear to be much to complain of. The true cause for complaint arises when time, which might otherwise be spent in inspecting schools, is devoted to work in the office; or when, as is stated to be the case in Bombay, the Inspector has so much correspondence to deal with while on tour that he has too little leisure for conferring with the people. The most jealous care should be exercised to prevent his office engagements from trenching unduly on the far more important duty of actual inspection. But the circumstances and systems of different Provinces are so diverse that it is difficult to offer any suggestions of general application on this point. We recommend the subject to the careful consideration of the Local Governments and Departments.

367. Cost of Inspection and Control.—The particulars of expenditure under these heads are shown in the following Table:—

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In the six larger Provinces the proportion of the expenditure on direction and inspection to the total educational expenditure from Provincial revenues varies from 16 1/2 per cent in Bengal, and 18 or 18 1/2 per cent in the Punjab and Bombay, to between 24 and 28 1/2 per cent. in Madras, the North-Western Provinces and the Central Provinces; the proportion for all India being rather more than 20 per cent. Separating the cost of direction and inspection, that of direction varies from 2.69 per cent. in Bengal and 3.42 per cent. in Bombay, to 6 and 7 per cent. in the Punjab and the Central Provinces. The cost of inspection varies from 11 1/2 per cent. of the Provincial expenditure in the Punjab and 14 per cent. in Bengal, to about 22 per cent. in the North-Western and the Central Provinces.

368. Increase of the Inspecting Staff.-Of nearly every Province it may be stated that the inspecting staff has not kept pace with the increase in the number of schools, though in some Provinces the deficiency is greater, in others less. There can be no doubt that the systematic inspection of schools by regular or trained inspectors is one of the most important branches of educational work. The extension of the means of education and its direct control may be largely entrusted to private agency; but it is and will always remain one of the chief functions of the Department to supervise and test by an efficient staff of Inspectors the education so provided. We are fully sensible of the importance of securing the assistance of persons who are not members of the regular inspecting staff both for the conduct of public examinations and for the superintendence of individual schools; but we are satisfied that voluntary agency can never supply the place of regular professional inspection, and that the increase of the inspecting staff should keep pace with the extension of education. We accordingly recommend that native and other local energy be relied upon to foster and manage all education as far as possible; but that the results must be tested by departmental agency, and that therefore the inspecting staff be increased so as to be adequate to the requirements of each Province. Another point appears to us to deserve attention. It is admitted that with the large extension of primary education, the duties and responsibilities of the subordinate officers of the Department have greatly increased, generally without any improvement in their position. Efficient work can only be secured by adequate pay, and we recommend that the remuneration of subordinate inspecting officers be reconsidered in each Province with due regard to their enhanced duties and responsibilities.

369. Organisation of the Inspecting Staff.-Our next Recommendation has for its object to guard against the unnecessary or too frequent transfer of the superior officers of the Department from Inspectorships to Professorships, and vice versa. It has been pointed out that occasionally, just when an officer is beginning to make himself useful as an Inspector of Schools, he is transferred to a college, and an inexperienced man put in his place. Sometimes the exigencies of the Department no doubt demand such a transfer; sometimes a good officer will be all the better for a change in the character of his work; and on these grounds it appeared to some of us undesirable to make any definite recommendation on the subject. It is obvious that no rigid rule can be laid down; but so far as may be possible, an endeavour should be made to keep the inspecting and the professorial branches of the Department distinct, so as to promote the formation of

specialists in each branch. We therefore recommend that, as a general rule, transfers of officers from Professorships of colleges to Inspectorships of schools be not made. On another point we were more nearly unanimous. Our Recommendation on this head has been referred to in a previous paragraph of the present Chapter, and it is the complement of one which we have already made, in dealing with collegiate educa-

In the six larger Provinces the proportion of the expenditure on direction and inspection to the total educational expenditure from Provincial revenues varies from 16 per cent, in Bengal, and 18 or 18 per cent, in the Punjab and Bombay, to between 24 and 28 per cent, in Madras, the North-Western Provinces and the Central Provinces; the proportion for all India being rather more than 20 per cent. Separating the cost of direction and inspection, that of direction varies from 2.69 per cent, in Bengal and 3.42 per cent, in Bombay, to 6 and 7 per cent, in the Punjab and the Central Provinces. The cost of inspection varies from 14 per cent, of the Provincial expenditure in the Punjab and 14 per cent, in Bengal, to about 22 per cent, in the North-Western and the Central Provinces.

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369- Organisation of the Inspecting Staff!—Our next recommendation has for its object to guard against the unnecessary or too frequent transfer of the superior officers of the Department from Inspectorships to Professorships, and *vice versa*. It has been pointed out that occasionally, just when an officer is beginning to make himself useful as an Inspector of Schools, he is transferred to a college, and an inexperienced man put in his place. Sometimes the exigencies of the Department no doubt demand such a transfer; sometimes a good officer will be all the better for a change in the character of his work; and on these grounds it appeared to some of us undesirable to make any definite recommendation on the subject. It is obvious that no rigid rule can be laid down; but so far as may be possible, an endeavour should be made to keep the inspecting and the professorial branches of the Department distinct, so as to promote the formation of specialists in each branch. We therefore recommend *that, as a general rule, transfers of officers* from Professorships of colleges to Inspectorships of schools be not made.* On another point we were more nearly unanimous. Our recommendation on this head has been referred to in a previous paragraph of the present Chapter, and it is the complement of one which we have already made, in dealing with collegiate educa-

tion, for the larger employment of Indian graduates as Professors of colleges. It stands thus :—that it be distinctly laid down that native gentlemen of approved qualifications are eligible for the post of Inspector of schools, and that they be employed in that capacity more commonly than has been the case hitherto. The duties assigned to Circle and Divisional Inspectors also engaged our attention. In one Province an attempt is made to bring every school, even of the lowest grade, at least once a year under the eye of an Inspector. A system of this kind may have been necessary in the beginning; but as numbers increase and the standard of instruction is raised, such inspection tends to become more and more superficial. It is no longer difficult to find competent and trustworthy Deputy Inspectors, who are quite capable of conducting examinations and of assisting in the direct management of primary schools; and it appears to be now quite unnecessary to require Inspectors to occupy themselves with duties which may be satisfactorily discharged by a less highly trained and costly agency. On this point we recommend that the detailed examination of scholars in primary schools be chiefly entrusted to Deputy Inspectors and their assistants; and that the main duty of the Inspectors in connection with such schools be to visit them, to examine into the way in which they are conducted, and to endeavour to secure the cordial support of the people in the promotion of primary education.

The success that is generally admitted to have attended the appointment of Inspectresses of Schools leads us to recommend that Inspectresses be employed where necessary for the general supervision of Government-aided, and other girls' schools desiring inspection. Lastly, we believe that the work of inspection would be facilitated and rendered more efficient, if the instructions that have from time to time been issued on the subject of inspection were gathered into a provincial Code for the guidance of inspecting officers. Such a Code, drawn up to suit local requirements, should prescribe in detail the routine which an officer should follow when visiting a school, the manner in which his examination should be conducted, the points to which his attention should be directed apart from the examination of scholars, and the form in which his inspection-report should be drawn up. Attention to these requirements would not only make inspections more systematic and thorough, but would enable the superior officers, to whom the reports are submitted, to gain a much clearer insight into the condition of schools. A chapter under this head has recently been inserted in the English Code. We accordingly recommend that in every Province a Code be drawn up for the guidance of inspecting officers.

370, Enlistment of voluntary Inspection.—We have seen that, in addition to the trained agency of the departmental staff of Inspectors, other persons and bodies engage themselves, more or less systematically in different Provinces, in the inspection of schools. In the Resolution appointing the Commission it was suggested that if there was to be any great extension of primary schools, arrangements should be made for securing a large amount of voluntary agency in the work of inspection and examination. Our enquiries have led us to set a high value on extra-departmental assistance of this kind, and to urge that every encouragement should be offered it. It is true that inspection by an untrained person is not so effective as that by a professional expert; and that it cannot be generally counted on to remedy those defects of organisation and method which a trained Inspector at once discovers and seeks to remove. But there are benefits of another kind to be gained from enlisting the services of official and other visitors in the inspection of schools. The influence of the District Officer at any rate is so great, and the advantages of showing the people that he interests himself in their education are so manifest, that it is very desirable that his official connection with all the schools in his District should be definitely declared, in accordance with the existing rule in Bombay.

We therefore recommend that it be recognised as the duty of the revenue officers to visit the schools within their jurisdiction, communicating to the executive officers or the board to which each school is subordinate any recommendations which they may desire to make. **The official influence of other visitors, whether officers of Government or not, is less; but we think it desirable that visits of inspection by such persons also should be encouraged.** These visits serve at any rate to show interest and sympathy; and every one who has travelled much in the interior of the country knows with what alacrity the visit of a passer-by is welcomed by the head-master; what pride he takes in seeing his best pupils acquit themselves well before the stranger; and how eager he is to make the most of an occasion which breaks the monotony of his daily task. We have already referred to the use that is made, in some Districts of Bengal, of village committees appointed to assist the officers of the Department in conducting the central examinations of primary schools. **We therefore supplement the last Recommendation by the following:—**that voluntary inspection by officers of Government and private persons be encouraged in addition to the regular inspection of departmental and revenue officers*

371. System of Departmental Examinations—In our Chapters IV and V we have explained that under present orders the pupils in schools throughout India are subject to three examinations, the lower primary, the upper primary, and the middle school examinations, the standards of which have been defined with greater or less precision by the Government of India. Besides these general examinations, others have been instituted in different Provinces, either to determine promotions, or for admission to the public service, or for the award of scholarships. We proceed to give an account of the systems in force.

—In addition to the three named above, there are general departmental examinations; one for the fifth class, and one for the lower fourth or that below the middle school examination. The fifth class examination is conducted by the Director for the whole Presidency; that for the lower fourth is conducted by each Inspector for his own Division. The examinations, however, are “general” for Government schools only, though they are open to such aided schools as desire to take advantage of them. Strictly speaking, these two are the only “general” departmental examinations. The middle school examination is in Madras not a departmental but a “service” examination, conducted by the Commissioner for the T. J. N. Covenanted Service examinations. It does, however, answer a departmental purpose, inasmuch as passing it qualifies for promotion from the middle to the high school. The two primary school examinations, again, are conducted independently for each school; in Government schools by Deputy Inspectors assisted by the masters; in aided schools by the masters alone. In Government schools promotions are strictly regulated by these five examinations; in aided schools only the middle and the two primary examinations necessarily determine promotion. Managers of aided schools may, however avail themselves of the other two departmental examinations, on agreeing to regulate promotions by the result. In doubtful cases, considerable discretion is allowed to the managers or the head-master.

Bombay.—In Bombay there are two departmental examinations held at centres namely, the first and second class public service certificate examinations. The former is the final test of the middle school course; the latter is the final test of the course in primary schools. These examinations are

conducted at the chief town of every District. They are super-

intended by committees consisting of the Inspector of Schools as President, the head-master of the high school, the Deputy Inspector, and other gentlemen. All schools in the same Division are examined by the same papers. All other examinations are of individual schools and are held *in situ*; each class being examined, pupil by pupil, under definite standards prescribed by the Department. Promotions depend partly upon these examinations, and partly upon the marks gained by the pupils in class during the twelve months preceding the examination.

'PftTipra.1.—Promotions from class to class throughout a high school are made upon the results of annual examinations, which in Government schools are conducted by the head-master and the school staff, assisted in some instances by members of the District School Committee. No definite standards have been prescribed by the Department for these examinations, but under the orders of Government they are required to be very strict and searching. In schools under private management the examinations for promotion are held by the head-master. In the special reports which Inspectors furnish to the Director after the examination of each Government or aided high school, they are required to take special notice of the organisation of the different classes, so as to check the promotions made by the head-master at the close of the previous session. The pupils in high schools are subject to no general examination below that for matriculation. In middle schools, English and vernacular, the only general examination is that for middle scholarships, which all the pupils in the highest classes have to attend at the head-quarters of each District. The examination is for certificates as well as for scholarships; and the success or failure of the pupils is one of the recognised means of testing the efficiency of the school. The examination has hitherto been held by each Inspector for all the schools in his circle; henceforward it is to be conducted by the Director for all schools in the Province. The upper primary school examination is held by the Inspector for all the schools in a Division; the lower primary is a District examination. Both are held at fixed centres by means of common papers. Scholarships and certificates are awarded on the results of each examination; but they do not serve as examinations for promotion. Such a course would be incompatible with the special characteristics of the Bengal school system, in which the standard of primary and of middle schools is independent of that of schools of a higher class. Promotions are made, not by a common examination, but in every case by the local authorities of the school.

Other Provinces.—In the other Provinces of India except Berar, which follows the lead of Bombay, there are no general departmental examinations beyond those prescribed by the Government of India. In all except Amm, which has adopted the Bengal system, the upper primary and miVldIA school examinations are the test for admission to a middle and a high school respectively. In the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab, and A«sam, the middle school examination is two-fold, so as to suit the course in Tfrngliah and in vernacular schools.

372. Limitation of compulsory Examinations.—We have already recommended in Chapter IV that the upper and lower primary examinations be not made compulsory in any Province. We have seen that these examinations are not suited to the necessarily varying circumstances of all Provinces. In one Province, a pupil may advance from the lower to the upper primary, or from the primary to the middle stage, without passing these examinations, since they are not related to the course of instruction in his school. In another, the

examination is enforced in every case as a condition of promotion. In a third, again, the particular examinations selected have no special relevancy, since the existing system includes a much more comprehensive series into which the prescribed standards can only with difficulty be fitted. We do not recommend the abolition of these examinations where they have been adopted with advantage, or where, as in Bengal and Assam, they are utilised for the award of scholarships. But if in any Province the examinations conflict with the established system, or are in other ways a source of difficulty, we think that they should not be enforced. The object which they were designed to attain can be otherwise secured. That object was to determine the stages of instruction which pupils in primary schools had reached, and to separate the less advanced from the more advanced pupils in such schools. It is undesirable for such a purpose to require all pupils to pass by a fixed standard in order to secure promotion, and thus to practically compel every school to adopt the departmental course without variation. The imposition of so rigidly uniform a system has been condemned by many private managers, as interfering with the freedom which they claim in the conduct of their schools. It has also been virtually superseded by the Resolution of the Government of India, dated the 10th January 1881, in which the Governor General in Council declared that it was undesirable "to lay down as an invariable rule that no pupil shall be allowed to enter upon the secondary stage without passing an examination in the subjects of primary instruction." The necessary separation can be effected, quite accurately enough for practical purposes, by means of a return to be furnished by each school showing the number of pupils in each stage. This is a matter which has been independently considered by the Committee appointed for the Revision of Educational Forms, and it is therefore unnecessary for us to discuss it at any greater length. We should, however, here recall attention to our Recommendation No. 22 of Chapter V, "that promotions from class to class be left entirely to the discretion of the school authorities." We recommend, in amplification of these Recommendations *that the general upper and lower primary school examinations be not compulsory, but that the annual reports show the number of scholars in each stage of education.*

373. **Examinations for the Public Service**—It has been pointed out in previous Chapters that in some Provinces there is instituted a regular system of examinations for admission to the public service, these examinations being for the most part conducted by the Department. In Bombay the examinations for the lower grade certificate are confined to vernacular subjects; and thus it is possible to maintain a high standard of instruction in primary schools, and to offer a career to the most promising of those village pupils who learn no English. We approve of the principle of that system; and we accordingly recommend *that in every Province in which examinations for the public service are held, they be so arranged as to give encouragement to vernacular education.* In Chapter V we have recommended that, in the conduct of all departmental examinations, the managers and teachers of non-Government schools should be associated with the officers of the Department. The same practice should, we think, be followed in the examinations now under notice; and we recommend *that the Committees appointed to conduct the public service examinations and other examinations of a similar kind, include representatives of non-Government schools as well as departmental officers.*

374. **Teaching staff**—The provision of teachers for the different grades of institutions has been fully considered in our Chapters on Primary, Secondary, and Collegiate Education, and with regard to girls' schools will be discussed at length in our Chapter on Female Education. In Chapters III and IV we

have insisted on the necessity of adequate local provision of Normal schools being made for each Inspector's Division. In Chapter V we considered the question of requiring all teachers of secondary schools to pass through a regular Normal school course; and we were of opinion that such a requirement was unnecessary, provided that such teachers were called upon to pass an examination in the principles and practice of teaching. At the same time we are of opinion that full encouragement should be given to the establishment of Normal schools of a superior class, such as will afford to intending teachers of secondary schools an opportunity of acquiring a complete training for their duties, including practice in an attached model school. We therefore recommend that Normal schools, Government or aided, for teachers of secondary schools be encouraged. On the subject of the employment of pupil-teachers we have no specific Recommendation to make. The importance of such a provision in any complete scheme for the training of teachers will however be admitted, and we commend it to the consideration of the Education Departments in the * several Provinces.

375. **Text-books: Appointment of a Committee.**—The question of producing improved text-books for Indian schools has for some years past been under the consideration of the Government of India. A Resolution on the subject was issued in 1873, when local Governments were requested to appoint * committees for the examination of existing school-books, in order to discover defects of either form or substance and to bring them into harmony with the principles declared in the Resolution. On receiving the reports of the Local Governments, the Government of India in 1877 convened a small general committee comprising representatives of the several Provinces. The instructions to the Committee were (1) to consider the provincial reports in detail; (2) to ascertain how far the recommendations conveyed in the reports had been locally carried into effect and with what success, and how far their operation might be usefully extended; (3) to carry the enquiry further, with a view to the production of vernacular text-books, on such subjects as law, jurisprudence, the principles of evidence, and the like, in a form thoroughly adapted for the training of native candidates to official employment or public life under Government ; and (4) to report to the Government of India how the various measures recommended might be best combined, so as to form a complete scheme which, when approved, might be prescribed for general observance.

376. **Report of the Text-Book Committee**—The recommendations made in the Committee's Report may be thus briefly summarised:—

- (1) That school-books should be based upon some uniform classification of studies throughout India, and that, with this view, education throughout India should be divided into primary, secondary, and collegiate instruction;
- (2) That primary instruction should always be given in the mother-tongue of the student and should consist of essentials, that is to say, reading and writing the mother-tongue grammatically, simple arithmetic (not excluding local and professional modes of calculation), the elements of geography with special reference to the pupil's own district, and a knowledge of the most ordinary natural phenomena;
- (3) That secondary instruction should include all instruction from the conclusion of the primary stage up to the matriculation examinations of the various Universities, any further education being classed as collegiate instruction;

- (4) That no pupil should be allowed to enter upon the secondary stage of instruction without passing an examination in the subjects included in primary instruction;
- (5) That secondary instruction should be sub-divided into vernacular, Anglo-vernacular and English, according as it is conveyed through the medium of a vernacular language only, or partly in such a language and partly in English, or wholly in English ;
- (6) That as the objections to the promulgation of an Imperial series of English text-books for the whole of India outweighed the arguments in favour of such a course, the Government of Tnflin. need not take steps to secure results which would probably in time be brought about without any exertion on its part by means of private effort and enterprise; and that the objections to an Imperial series of English text-books applied with additional force to vernacular text-books;
- (7) That a Standing Committee of reference should be appointed in each Province to choose, or if necessary to prepare, appropriate vernacular text-books; and that the Committee so constituted should draw up a list of suitable books divided into two classes—the first class comprising books to be used in Government and aided schools, the second dealing with aided schools;
- (8) That no book not included in one or other of these lists, unless it be a book such as the Bible or the Koran, used in purely denominational schools for purposes of religious instruction, should be read in any school supported or subsidised by the Government;
- (9) That the Standing Committee of each Province should present a report at the end of every year, together with a revised list of books, to be published in the *Government Gazette* with the orders of Government thereon;
- (to) That the Directors of Public Instruction should, in their annual reports, notice how far the orders of Government have been carried out;
- (11) That when no suitable text-book exists in any specified subject legitimately included in school or college instruction, the Standing Committee should take steps to* have such a work prepared;
- (12) That the Standing Committee should make it their business, under the direction of their respective Governments, to encourage by all means in their power the development of vernacular ' literature;
- (13) That an English Text-book Committee should be established in every Province with similar powers and duties;
- (14) That arrangements should be made to furnish each Provincial Committee with the lists of approved works published by the others; and that each Standing Committee should be ordered to procure copies of all the text-books sanctioned in other Provinces in order to form the nucleus of a text-book library of reference;
- (15) As regards the principles which should guide the local Committees in the preparation and selection of text-books, it was recommended that every series of vernacular readers for primary instruction should contain lessons on the following subjects:—
 - (1) Eeverence for God, parents, teachers, rulers, and the aged;

- (2) A simple sketch of the duties of a good citizen, and universally admitted principles of morality and prudence;
- (3) Cleanliness of habits, politeness of speech, kindness of conduct to other human beings and the brute creation;
- (4) The dignity and usefulness of labour, and the importance of agriculture, commerce, the various trades, professions and handicrafts;
- (5) The advantages of bodily exercise;
- (6) The properties of plants, the uses of minerals and metals;
- (7) The habits of animals, the characteristics of different races, common natural phenomena, fables, and historical and biographical episodes chiefly derived from Oriental sources.

It was added that simple poetical extracts should be introduced into the vernacular readers for primary instruction; and that the secondary series should go over much the same ground, only in a more thorough manner and at greater length, and should also include lessons on money matters, on manufactures, on the mechanical arts or sciences, and on the laws of health.

- (16) The main principles which the Committee recommended for adoption in the selection of text-books in English were:
 - (1) That readers should be graduated according to increasing difficulty of idiom, not, as is too often the case, according to increasing length of words;
 - (2) That readers intended for the lower classes of schools should be provided with notes and a glossary in the vernacular; and
 - (3) That works intended to teach the English language should be entertaining rather than instructive, the subjects of the earlier lessons being such as are familiar to Indian boys, in order that time which ought to be spent in teaching the language should not be wasted in explaining ideas.
 - (17) A further suggestion made by the Committee was that treatises might advantageously be prepared in the principal vernacular languages on subjects mentioned in the margin, it being left to the several Provincial Standing Committees, under the direction of their respective Governments, to encourage, by such means as they might think fit, the production of treatises on those subjects wherever they might seem to be required.
 - (1.) The laws of health or hygiene.
 - (2.) Political economy.
 - (3.) The principles of jurisprudence.
 - (4.) The principles of evidence.
 - (5.) The theory and practice of land
 - (6.) Axioms.
- (18) The question of terminology was discussed at length, and the opinion at which the majority of the Committee arrived was that transliterations of European scientific terms should be employed in all cases where precise vernacular equivalents are not already in current use;
 - (19) Lastly, the Committee made various recommendations on minor points, as, for instance, the proper method of teaching history and geography, and the desirability of supplying schools with wall-maps and instructive engravings.

377. Resolution of the Government of India on the Report—After receiving the opinions of Local Governments, the Government of India issued a Resolution, dated the 10th January 1881, on the Committee's Report. The Resolution declared that in some respects, chiefly those relating to the classification of schools, the recommendations of the Committee were inapplicable to the circumstances of the different Provinces. For example, there was no such well-marked division between primary and secondary instruction as to make it desirable or even possible to attempt a precise definition of those terms, or to lay down as an invariable rule that no pupil should be allowed to enter upon the secondary stage without passing an examination in the subjects included in primary instruction. It was unreasonable to seek uniformity at the cost of hindering the further development of particular systems on their own lines, or of rendering them unsuitable to the circumstances of the Provinces in which they had grown up. Again, the proposed sub-division of secondary education into vernacular, Anglo-vernacular, and English need not be attempted. It was sufficient to maintain the broad division of instruction into primary, secondary, and collegiate, the definition and scope of primary instruction being left to the Local Governments to determine. This division would serve as a useful basis for the systematic preparation and classification of text-books.

The opinion expressed by the Committee in favour of maintaining separate Provincial series of English and vernacular text-books, in preference to a single Imperial series, met with the entire concurrence of the Government of India. Not only had the Supreme Government no suitable machinery at its disposal for the preparation of such a single series, but it seemed most desirable that the preparation of suitable school books, especially of those in the vernacular, should be left to Local Governments, assisted by Standing Committees if necessary. These committees should contain a fair intermixture of independent members, whose choice of books could not be set down to sectarian, professional, or departmental bias. The suggestions that intercommunication between the Standing Committees of the several Provinces should be encouraged, in order that each might benefit by the experience of the others, and that each Provincial Committee should procure copies of all the text-books approved in other Provinces, in order to form the nucleus of a text-book library of reference, were fully approved by the Government of India. It was also intimated that the Directors of Public Instruction, who would probably be *ex-officio* Presidents of the Committees, should devote a separate section in their annual reports to the subject of text-books, noticing how far the orders of the Government had been carried out, and showing what books had been revised during the year, and what new books had been added to the authorised lists. There was no necessity to restrict aided schools to the use of the text-books authorised for Government institutions. Any such interference with schools under private management would be inconvenient, and was clearly opposed to the general educational policy of Government. The principles advocated for the guidance of local committees in the preparation of vernacular and the selection of English text-books were fully approved; and the suggestion that vernacular treatises might advantageously be prepared on the subjects mentioned in the 17th clause of the last paragraph was recommended to the consideration of Local Governments. In regard to the vexed question of terminology, the Government of India endorsed the opinion of the majority of the Committee that transliteration of European scientific terms should be employed in all cases where precise vernacular equivalents were not in current use. The question of terminology was, however, one which must ultimately be settled by a process of natural selection; or, in the words of the

Committee, "those terms which are found practically most convenient will be "victorious."

378. Action taken in the different Provinces—The general effect of the Resolution, therefore, was that the preparation and the periodical revision of text-books for schools was a matter which must be mainly left in the hands of the Local Governments and Administrations, and that "independent Provincial effort" was a safer guide to follow than "centralised Imperial control."⁹³ It may be mentioned that the only instance in which this principle has since been departed from is in the issue by the Government of India of an authorised "Sanitary Primer," written in English by Dr. J. M. Cuningham, and translated by the Local Governments into their various vernaculars, for use in all primary and middle schools. On the publication of the Resolution, Standing Committees were appointed in every Province of India; and the preparation, revision, and selection of text-books have since been carried on with commendable activity. It remains to show what arrangements are now in force for the supply and distribution of text-books in the different Provinces. We shall also take the opportunity of summarising the opinions that have been expressed by witnesses who have given evidence before the Commission as to the character of the text-books in use,

379. Text-books in Madras.—Many years ago there was established in this Province a central book depot, with nineteen District depôts, under the control of the Education Department. These are no longer considered necessary, and orders have been issued to close them. The general revision of vernacular and English text-books by the Committee appointed under the orders of Government is actively proceeding, and before long will be completed. The salary formerly assigned to the Government Tamil translatorship is now reserved for the payment of separate editors* nominated by the Department from time to time for special work. Besides the Government depot, there are two other valuable agencies for supplying school books. These are the Madras School Book and Vernacular Literature Society, and the Christian Vernacular Education Society. A full account of the work done by these societies in the preparation and revision of school books is given in the Provincial Report. Of the books in use in Government schools no great or general complaint was made by the witnesses examined before the Commission. Some were considered in need of further revision; their defects being a want of variety of subject, the absence of moral instruction, and their dryness. Against others, used not only in departmental but also and chiefly in mission schools, it was objected that they were too difficult both in matter and in language, that they were distasteful to certain sections of the community, too European in their character, and sometimes not impartial in regard to religious questions.

380- Text-books in Bombay.—The supply and distribution of text-books in this Province is effected by means of a Government central book depot at Bombay, and of branch depôts in the Districts. For some time past the book depot has been self-supporting; and while it involves no loss to Government, it enables the Department to sell books at a cheaper rate than would be possible to any private trader. This is a matter of no small importance in the poorer districts of the Deccan. For the preparation and revision of text-books, and for the award of prizes for original works, there is a Text-Book Committee in each Province of the Presidency. Under this Committee the instructions of the Government of India on the subject of text-books are being fully carried out. The Text-Book Committee appointed to examine class-books in Bombay expressed their "high approbation" both of the Gujarathi

and of the Marathi series. The witnesses before the Commission have generally admitted the books in use to be good, but faults have been found on certain points. More Persian was suggested, and a good Urdu series was said to be wanted. Some of the books were thought too abstruse and scientific : others were not suited to the agricultural classes, who required instruction of a more practical character. The typography in certain cases was said to be bad; different books were needed for boys and for girls; some of the witnesses wished to see moral lessons and instruction in the laws of health included in the courses; others advocated the larger use of illustrated manuals. It was suggested that private authors should be invited to prepare text-books, and that managers of schools should submit for approval those which seemed to them especially good. One witness thought that no text-books should be prescribed, their choice being left to managers and teachers.

381. Text-books in Bengal.—The production and distribution of English and Indian school books is mainly effected through the Calcutta School Book Society, which was established in 1817 and now has about 150 agents, chiefly officers of the Education Department, at different stations in the Districts, For sixty years the society received from Government a grant of Rs. 500 a month, now reduced to Rs. 200. The business done by this society has been very large, but of late years private competition has rendered it less necessary for the schools to depend upon any single agency. Independent provincial effort, as advocated by the Simla Text-Book Committee in 1877, has free play, and the Education Department is not directly concerned with either the production or the distribution of school books. The Provincial Text-Book Committee, composed of official and non-official members, selects from the list of published books any that are of sufficient merit to justify their introduction into schools of different classes. The further selection from this list, after it has received the confirmation of the Director of Public Instruction, is left to the local managers of schools, subject to the limitations imposed by the standards of the several examinations, which are prescribed by the Department. Very little criticism upon the books in use was offered by the witnesses examined. In the case of certain books the “get-up” was said to be bad, and more illustrations were suggested, The absence of moral instruction was regretted by one witness, who also thought that the books should be more Indian and should have more reference to the lives of men of action. Another witness considered parts of some of the books unsuited for girls. A larger objection was brought against the language, Hindi, as the medium of instruction in the primary schools of Behar. This was said to be a language not understood at all by the boys in many parts of that Province, and but little understood even by their teachers. The essence of the objection is that the Hindi of the text-books is what is known as “high Hindi;” and that while this form is closely allied with the dialects of Northern India from Allahabad to Delhi, it is too far removed from those of the eastern group—that is, chiefly, the dialects of Behar—to be safely used in schools as the standard or literary form of the language. The practical result, it is urged, is to impose on the children a foreign tongue before teaching them their own vernacular. The existing practice is defended on the ground that it is unnecessary and unwise to keep up in our schools those divisions which militate against the general tendency of civilised rule towards unity of speech, or to give artificial support to those dialects which have no such inherent vitality as will enable them to resist supersession by the current literary language. In another and very important respect the requirements of village schools in Behar have been met by the production, at the Bengal Government Press, of a font of Kaithi type, Kaithi being that current form of Nagari which is used in every village. Many thousand copies of the Sanitary

66 Primer^M in Hindi have been issued in this character; Government offers to supply the type at cost price to any private press; and text-books printed in this character are rapidly superseding all others in the primary schools of Behar.

382. Text-books in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh*—The usual sources whence English text-books are obtained for schools in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh are the Calcutta booksellers, the Calcutta School Book Society's depot, and its up-country agencies. Vernacular books are usually obtained from the Allahabad Government Depot and from the Newal Kishore Press at Lucknow. All those vernacular school-books of which Government has purchased the copyright are printed and published at the Government Press; and the Curator of the Allahabad Depot, who is the Superintendent of the Government Press, always keeps a large stock of such books on hand. Vernacular books of which the copyright does not belong to Government, but which the Director of Public Instruction has approved as suitable for use in schools or for prizes, are for the most part obtained from their authors or publishers. The distribution of school-books to schoolmasters and scholars is managed by means of auxiliary depots, kept at District head-quarters by head-masters of zila schools and by Deputy Inspectors. To facilitate the distribution still further and to render school texts easily procurable in towns and villages, the Deputy Inspectors keep a small stock of books at each tahsili school for the teacher to sell. The village schoolmaster, coming in every month for his pay, can at that time purchase from the tahsili school teacher all the books that his own scholars may require. A large number of objections were brought by the witnesses against the vernacular books in use in these Provinces, those in Hindi being especially condemned. Many of them were stigmatised as pedantic, childish, pretentious, inane, bad in point of idiom and language; some of them were said to need expurgation; some to be too difficult. Moral instruction was greatly needed; the subjects might be made more interesting and more suitable to Indian children.

383. Text-books in the Punjab.—A book depot for the sale of school books, and a lithographic press for printing vernacular text-books, were established in connection with the Director's office when the Department was first organised. At first the text-books which had been in use in the North-Western Provinces were commonly adopted, but a Punjab series was gradually introduced. Up to 1873, school-books were chosen and compiled under the orders of the Director with the assistance of his subordinates. A committee was then appointed by the Punjab Government to report upon the text-books adopted by the Department; and in accordance with their recommendations, the preparation of a new set of English Readers was referred for the consideration of the Government of India, and certain improvements in the vernacular series were ordered to be carried out at once. In 1877 a Standing Committee was created to deal with English text-books only, and to recommend a selection of books for school and college libraries; and in 1881 this committee was reconstituted, with power to deal with school-books of all kinds. The present committee consists of 16 members, only a few of whom are educational officers. One-half were nominated by the Government, and the other half by the Senate of the Punjab University College. They are divided into numerous sub-committees for different branches of the subject; and considerable activity has been manifested, both by the sub-committees and by private persons, in preparing and revising a series of school-books on a systematic plan. Though much improvement has thus taken place in the books in use, many of them, according to the witnesses* still need revision. The objections urged against them were their bad typography; their want of interest; the difficulty of some; the

want of variety of subjects in others; the absence of moral instruction; faultiness of idiom; and in some cases the violation of religious neutrality. Besides the Government book depot at Lahore, two agencies in the Punjab have an important share in the supply of school-books; the Bible and Religious Book Society at Lahore, and the American Mission Press at Ludhiana. These two institutions work in concert.

384* Text-books in the Central Provinces .—There are one central and two other large book depôts. There are also 18 smaller depôts, one in each District. English and vernacular text-books are purchased from England, from the Government book depôts of Bombay, Madras, the North-Western Provinces, and the Punjab, and from the Calcutta School Book Society. Vernacular school-books are prepared under the supervision of the Inspector General of Education, assisted when necessary by the advice of the Text-book Committee appointed with that object. The Provincial report furnishes a long list of the school-books written, compiled, and translated of late years under this system. These books are printed by the Education Society's Press at Bombay, the Newal Kishore Press at Lucknow, and by other presses. A private vernacular press at Nagpur has just been opened. All zila Inspectors having charge of branch book depôts are required to keep in hand a stock of books sufficient for the wants of scholars and masters. In the main, those now in use were admitted to be generally good; though a complaint was made that in some cases the work of translation having been undertaken by European officers with little spare time for the work, the style was not quite satisfactory. It was also urged that books of a more practical nature were needed for girls' schools.

335. Text-books in the other Provinces.—In Assam the supply of Bengali text-books, which are used in the majority of the Assam schools, is chiefly drawn from Bengal; some, however, have been published by masters and Pandits in the Assam schools and have received the approval of the Standing Committee. In Assamese there are but few good text-books for primary schools, though year by year authors are coming forward, and, with encouragement in the shape of rewards for original works, it is hoped that before long there will be a sufficient supply of text-books in the local vernacular. For the supply and distribution of text-books in Berar, a central book depot has been maintained at Akola, and 24 branch depôts at other stations and towns. English books and books printed and sold by the Bombay Education Department are obtained from the Bombay depot, and Urdu books from the North-West Provinces and the Punjab. A text-book committee was formed in 1881, consisting of three European and six native members. The Committee has revised two out of the three reading books of the Berar Education Department, and fresh editions of them have been printed. To supply the wants of Coorg there is a book depot at Bangalore, whence local and other publications are supplied to the branch depôts, of which there is one in each taluka. The Basel Mission has also a depot at Merkara for the sale of its own publications.

386. General Suggestions regarding Text-books—It has been shown above to what extent Text-book Committees have been constituted to carry out the instructions of Government. Where these Committees have been steadily at work, we see no reason to doubt that fair progress has been made towards securing the end in view. It is obvious, however, that the creation of a literature, even though it be but a literature of school-books, is a work of many years, and after all depends only in a minor degree upon the machinery which may be employed for the purpose. Taking all this for granted, it may not be superfluous for us to express our desire that text-books on

general subjects should aim at being interesting rather than didactic, that they should not be too scientific in their phraseology or subject-matter, and that, especially in primary schools, they should deal with common things familiar to the every-day life of their readers, and should be calculated to set the mind to work upon what is seen by the eye. Nothing can be more fallacious than the ordinary method of adapting English elementary readers to the supposed needs of Indian boys by changing apples into mangoes, pence into pice, or Harry into Earn. Adapted or unadapted, the books that are most suitable, because conveying the most familiar ideas, to English children, are most unsuitable to natives of India. Though often compelled to read about such things, the Indian learner knows nothing of hedge-rows, birds-nesting, hay-making, being naughty and standing in a comer. We need in an elementary reader, not the language of the nursery or the play-ground (the most difficult of all to a foreigner), but easy sentences conveying simple ideas that can be readily translated into the pupil's own tongue. In the next stage, the pupil should read instructive and interesting stories, with easy verse, always advancing in difficulty of idiom. In the third stage his reading books should treat, among other subjects, of history, natural history, and popular science. With this view we should like to see practical steps taken for the introduction of Science Primers adapted to Indian schools. A series of reading books intended for Indian students should not necessarily follow the same plan as one adapted for English boys; the object of English teaching being very different in the two cases.

The use of spelling-books seems also to be frequently misunderstood, and needs a word of caution. The combination of letters into words, which is the basis of spelling, should certainly be first learnt in the pupil's own vernacular; and then it would follow that English spelling, which is necessary in readers for the use of English boys, would have no place in those intended for Indian students; all the practice the latter would need would be that of spelling English words, not sounds; the principles of spelling being the same in English as in any Indian vernacular.

387. Special Text-Books for Village Schools •—In Chapter IV we expressly reserved the consideration of text-books for primary schools. On this subject we may call attention to the fact that the necessity of teaching the cultivators to value and preserve their rights was the motive which first induced the Court of Directors to interest itself in primary education. The local cess is chiefly paid by the agricultural classes; and in all Provinces the claims of those classes have been strongly pressed upon the consideration of the Department. It is urged that text-books intended for primary schools should be specially prepared so as to supply the Indian ryot with such information as will be useful to him in his ordinary occupations, and that they should be periodically revised with that object. The matter is one of great importance, and we put together two extracts from the Eeports of our Provincial Committees, to show • that the question has arisen in two Provinces whose systems of land tenure differ so widely as those of Bengal and Bombay. The Bengal Provincial Committee write*: —The upper primary scholarship course should “ include a brief “ manual descriptive of the rights and powers of the police, and the mutual "relations of landlord and tenant. It would be necessary to guard against the cc danger to which the use of any brief manual treating of a complex subject is “ liable, namely, that the imperfect knowledge conveyed by it may increase “ litigation and lead to,other evils/5 The Bombay Provincial Committee deal with the same subject at greater length. After acknowledging that great

* Paragraph 440, III 5 (3).

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progress has been made, they remark*:^{cc} Much still remains to be done: “famine relief and forest conservancy are after all modern inventions, and “constant alterations of the law, especially such Acts as the Deccan Agriculture Relief Act, require revisions of existing books.” They go on to recommend that short lessons, illustrative of actual events that have occurred in the real life of a peasant, should be incorporated in the text-books; and that in compiling these the Education Department should invite the co-operation of the District revenue or forest officers, so that the practical man of business in each Department might contribute to the school text-book some small lesson from his own experience. The suggestion is one that deserves the consideration of every Local Government, though we have not made it the subject of a specific Recommendation. There seems to be no doubt that the village school would be much more effective of good to the masses of the people, if the text-books looked more habitually to their daily life and wants,

388. Future Action with regard to Text-books—Our Recommendations regarding text-books are fewer in number than the importance of the subject might seem to require, because we see no reason to repeat in detail what has already been declared after mature consideration by the Committee appointed for this special purpose, and by the Government of India in reviewing their suggestions. Two of our Recommendations are, however, designed to bring into prominence certain leading principles of the Government Resolution which have not in every case been completely followed out. They relate to the inclusion of independent members in the Standing Committees, and to the interchange of information between the Committees of different Provinces. We recommend accordingly (1) *that the Text-book Committees include qualified persons of different sections of the community not connected with the Department, and that to these Committees should be submitted all text-books, both English and vernacular, that it is proposed to introduce into schools, and all text-books now in use that may seem to need revision; and (2) that the Text-book Committees of the several Provinces act as far as possible in concert; and that they communicate to each other lists of English text-books, and (in the case of those Provinces which have any common language) of vernacular text-books, which are satisfactory, and lists of books which they consider to be wanting or inadequate.* Our few remaining Recommendations on this subject refer to points which are not touched upon in the Resolution, but to which our enquiries have led us to attach importance. The supply and distribution of English books should be left as far as possible to the agency of private trade, with which the operations of the Government book depôts are said materially to interfere; and we recommend *that the operations of the existing Government depôts be confined as soon as may be practicable to the supply and distribution of vernacular text-books.* Complaints have also reached us that sufficient care is not always taken, in the selection of text-books, to see that they contain no matter which is likely to give offence to any class of pupils; and we accordingly recommend *that care be taken to avoid as far as possible the introduction of text-books which are of an aggressive character, or are likely to give unnecessary offence to any section of the community.* Lastly, it has been pointed out to us that many of the books now in use are so badly printed as to injure the eyesight of pupils, and this complaint is especially marked in the case of lithographed Urdu school-books. We therefore recommend *that in the printing of text-books, especially vernacular text-books, attention be paid to clearness of typography.*

On the subject of encouragement to authors, we have no definite sugges-

* Chapter 10, Section B> paragraph 13.

tions to make. A prize may advantageously be offered to architects for a design or to students for an essay; but it is unreasonable to suppose that a dozen authors will undergo the labour of writing a grammar or a history, with the certainty that eleven out of the twelve manuscript works will be cast aside. Either competent persons must be employed to prepare the text-books which are required, or, preferably, the demand may be met by the voluntary agency of qualified persons who have confidence in their own ability to supply what is needed, and who look for their reward to the patronage of the market..

389. Recapitulation of Recommendations.—The Recommendations adopted by the Commission stand thus:—

- (1) That when an educational officer enters the higher graded service of the Education Department, his promotion should not involve any loss of pay.
- (2) That conferences (1) of officers of the Education Department, and (2) of such officers with managers of aided and unaided schools, be held from time to time for the discussion of questions affecting education, the Director of Public Instruction being in each case *ex-officio* President of the conference. Also that Deputy Inspectors occasionally hold local meetings of the schoolmasters subordinate to them, for the discussion of questions of school management.
- (3) That a general educational library and museum be formed at some suitable locality in each Province, and that encouragement be given to school-papers or magazines conducted in the vernacular.
- (4) That managers of schools in competition be invited by the Department to agree to rules providing, as far as the circumstances of the locality allow, (1) that, except at specified times, a pupil of one school be not admitted to another without a certificate from his previous school; (2) that any fees due to that school have been paid; and (3) that he do not obtain promotion into a higher class by changing his school.
- (5) That it be an instruction to the Departments of the various Provinces to aim at raising fees gradually, cautiously, and with due regard to necessary exemptions, up to the highest amount that will not check the spread of education, especially in colleges, secondary schools, and primary schools in towns where the value of education is understood.
- (6) That the Education Department of each Province limit its calls for returns* (r) to such as the Government may require, and (2) to such others as are indispensable for information and control.
- (7) That all schools managed by the Department, or by Committees exercising statutory powers, and all other schools that are regularly aided or inspected, or that regularly send pupils to the examinations of the University or of the Department (other than examinations which are conducted by the Department for admission to the public service), be classed as public schools, and be subdivided into departmental, aided, and unaided; (2) that all other schools furnishing returns to the Department be classed as private schools; and (3) that all other details of classification be referred to the Statistical Committee appointed by the Government of India.
- (8) That no attempt be made to furnish financial returns for private schools.

- (9) That native and other local energy be relied upon to foster and manage all education as far as possible, but that the results be tested by departmental agency, and that therefore the inspecting staff be increased so as to be adequate to the requirements of each Province.
- (10) That the remuneration of subordinate inspecting officers be reconsidered in each Province with due regard to their enhanced duties and responsibilities,
- (11) That, as a general rule, transfers of officers from Professorships of colleges to Inspectorships of schools, and *vice versa*, be not made.
- (12) That it be distinctly laid down that native gentlemen of approved qualifications are eligible for the post of Inspector of Schools, and that they be employed in that capacity more commonly than has been the case hitherto.
- (13) That Inspectresses be employed where necessary for the general supervision of Government, aided, and other girls' schools desiring inspection.
- (14) That in every Province a Code be drawn up for the guidance of inspecting officers.
- (15) That it be recognised as the duty of the Revenue Officers to visit the schools within their jurisdiction; communicating to the executive officers or Board to which each school is subordinate any recommendations which they may desire to make.
- (16) That voluntary inspection by officers of Government and private persons be encouraged, in addition to the inspection of departmental and revenue officers.
- (17) That the detailed examination of scholars be chiefly entrusted to the Deputy Inspectants; and that the main duty of the Inspectors such schools be to visit them, to examine into the way in which they are conducted, and to endeavour to secure the cordial support of the people in the promotion of primary education.
- (18) That the general upper and lower primary school examinations be not compulsory, but that the annual reports show the number of scholars in each stage of education.
- (19) That in every Province in which examinations for the public service are held, they be so arranged as to give encouragement to vernacular education.
- (20) That the committees appointed to conduct the public service examinations and other examinations of a similar kind include representatives of non-Government schools as well as departmental officers.
- (21) That Normal schools, Government or aided, for teachers of secondary schools be encouraged.
- (22) That the Text-book Committees in the several Provinces include qualified persons of different sections of the community not connected with the Department, and that to these Committees be submitted all text-books, both English and vernacular, that it is proposed to introduce into schools, and all text-books now in use that may seem to need revision.

- (23) That the Text-book Committees of the several Provinces act as far as possible in concert; and that they communicate to each other lists of English text-books, and (in the case of those Provinces which have any common language) of vernacular text-books, which are satisfactory, and also lists of books which they consider to be wanting or inadequate.
- (24) That the operations of the existing Government dep6ts be confined as soon as may be practicable to the supply and distribution of vernacular text-books.
- (25) That care be taken to avoid, as far as possible, the introduction of text-books which are of an aggressive character, or are likely to give unnecessary offence to any section of the community.
- (26) That in the printing of text-books, especially vernacular text-books, attention be paid to clearness of typography.

CHAPTER YHL

EXTERNAL RELATIONS OF THE DEPARTMENT TO INDIVIDUALS AND PUBLIC BODIES.

390* Introductory.—In treating of the external relations of the Department, we shall (1) describe the relation that the State desires to maintain to non-departmental educational effort, as indicated by the Despatch of 1854 and subsequent Despatches. (2) We shall recount the growth of private enterprise in education, giving a brief sketch of the progress of aided education since 1854* &nd of its present condition in each of the Provinces. (3) We shall present in a tabular form a general view of the condition of aided education in 1881-82, showing the amount of public funds expended in each Province on the encouragement and development of private enterprise, with such comments as the Tables may suggest (4) We shall describe the various systems of aid at present in force, noting briefly the advantages and disadvantages of each, and the remedies which we propose for such defects as may be found to exist. (5) We shall discuss the distribution and extent of aid in the different Provinces and under the different: systems, inquiring into the sufficiency or insufficiency of its amount in the case of different classes of institutions, and particularly of girls' schools. (6) We shall mention the main points not elsewhere dealt with that are suggested by the evidence, the memorials, and the Provincial Reports, as to the various systems of aid and their administration. Having thus examined fully the present condition of the education that derives its origin from private effort, we shall then treat of (7) the relations that should subsist between the Department and private enterprise, and (8) the functions of Local and Municipal Boards and their relations to the Department and to private enterprise. (9) We shall next invite attention to questions bearing on the future of aided education, such as the possibility of raising additional funds, as, for instance, by means of fees; the need of guaranteeing financial rights to private enterprise, of providing safeguards against sudden withdrawals or curtailment of grants, and cognate topics. In this connection we shall (10) consider the question of the withdrawal of Government from the direct provision and management of education, especially of higher education, and the principles on which such withdrawal should proceed. (1 x) We shall then treat of the indirect aids of various kinds which the State may afford to private educational effort, and (12) shall conclude with a recapitulation of the Recommendations we have made after full discussion of the topics thus enumerated.

SECTION I.—*The Relation of the State to non-departmental Effort.*

391. Objects of the Despatch of 1854: the Grant-in-aid System.—The Despatch of 1854 contains the first declaration of the policy of the Government in a matter which lies at the root of any national system of education, that is to say, the determination of the parts which can be most effectively taken in it by the State and by the people. The immediate aims of the Government of that time were the same as those to which the attention of every European State was first directed when organising its system of public instruction. The existing schools of all kinds were to be improved

and their number increased, systematic inspection was to be established, and a supply of competent teachers was to be provided. But in India the attitude of the State to national education was affected by three conditions to which no European State could furnish a parallel. In the first place the population was not only as large as that of all the European States together that had adopted an educational system, but it presented, in its different Provinces, at least as many differences of creed, language, race, and custom. Secondly, the ruling power was bound to hold itself aloof from all questions of religion. Thirdly, the scheme of instruction to be introduced was one which should culminate in the acquisition of a literature and science essentially foreign. While therefore, on the one hand, the magnitude of the task before the Indian Government was such as to make it almost impossible of achievement by any direct appropriation from the resources of the Empire, on the other, the popular demand for education—so important a factor in the success of the European systems—had in general to be created. The Government adopted the only course which circumstances permitted. It was admitted that “to imbue a vast and ignorant population with a general desire for knowledge, and to take advantage of that desire when excited to improve the means for diffusing education amongst them, must be a work of many years and this admission was followed by the announcement that “as a Government, we can do no more than direct the efforts of the people, and aid them wherever they appear to require most assistance.” In pursuance of this resolution the earlier part of the Despatch is occupied with a review of all the agencies for education which were already in existence in India, whether maintained by Government or by private persons or bodies, native and foreign; and it was declared that the extension and increased supply of schools and colleges should for the future be mainly effected by the grant-in-aid system. Notice was taken of the increasing desire on the part of the natives of India for the means of obtaining a better education, as shown by the liberal sums which had recently been contributed with that object; and attention was drawn to the zeal and munificence which Hindus and Muhammadans for ages had manifested in the cause of education. Cordial recognition was also given to the efforts of Christian associations in diffusing knowledge among the natives of India, specially among uncivilised races. In such circumstances it was hoped that the grant-in-aid system could be introduced into India, as it had been into England, with every prospect of success. The introduction of that system was necessitated by a conviction of the impossibility of Government alone doing all that must be done in order to provide adequate means for the education of the natives of India; and it was expected that the plan of thus drawing support from local sources, in addition to contributions from the State, would result in a far more rapid progress of education than would follow a mere increase, of expenditure by the Government, while it possessed the additional advantage of fostering a spirit of reliance upon local exertions, and combination for local purposes, which was, of itself, of no mean importance to the well-being of a nation.

392. Scope and Character of the Grant-in-aid System—The system was to be based on an entire abstinence from interference with the religious instruction conveyed in the schools assisted, and aid was to be given within certain limits to all schools which imparted a good secular education, provided that they were under adequate local management, that is, under persons responsible for the general superintendence of the school and for its permanence for a given time. Such, schools were to be open to Government inspection, and to be subjected to such other rules as Government might from time to time impose. It was further required that some fee, however small,

should be levied in all aided schools; and that grants should be made for specific objects, such as the augmentation of the salaries of the head-teachers, the supply of junior teachers, the provision of scholarships, the supply of school-books, or the erection of buildings, and not for the general expenditure of the school. On these principles it was hoped that local management, under Government inspection and aided by grants, would be encouraged wherever it was possible to take advantage of it; and it was ruled that when such management so aided was capable of adequately meeting the local demand for education, Government institutions were not to be founded. The Despatch looked forward to the time when any general system of education entirely provided by the Government might be discontinued with the gradual advance of the system of grants-in-aid; and when many of the existing Government institutions, especially those of the higher order, might be safely closed or transferred to the management of local bodies, under the control of, and aided by, the State. But it was expressly provided that the spread of education was not to be checked in the slightest degree by the abandonment of a single school to probable decay; and while the desired object was to be kept steadily in view, the Government and the local authorities were enjoined to act with caution, and to be guided by special reference to the particular circumstances of the locality concerned. The higher classes would thus be gradually called upon to depend more upon themselves; while, for the education of the middle and lower classes, special attention was directed, both to the establishment of fitting schools for that purpose, and also to the careful encouragement of the native schools which had existed from time immemorial, and none of which perhaps, could not in some degree be made available to the end in view.

393. Supervision and Inspection—The grant-in-aid system was, therefore, to be the chief means by which the future multiplication of schools was to be effected; and the object of its introduction by the Government, so far as might be possible, of the cost of maintaining the large number of additional schools required, the extension of the number of schools was one only of the means by which a system of education could be perfected without supervision. In India again, as in other countries, no progress could be made without an ample supply of efficient teachers. Lastly, in all countries it has been found that the mere love of knowledge is an insufficient stimulus to the general advancement of learning; much more was this likely to be the case when the knowledge to be diffused was of a kind with which the traditions of the people and the attainments of their most learned men were altogether out of accord. The Government, therefore, while declining the responsibility of providing the entire cost of education, fully accepted the alternative task of directing its aims and improving its character, of providing efficient teachers, and of giving such encouragement to learning as would tend to fill the schools and make the profession of teaching an honourable one.

394. Formation of an Education Department—In every Province of India an Education Department was to be created as a portion of the machinery of Government. The Head of this Department was to be specially charged with the management of the business connected with education, and was to be immediately responsible to Government for its conduct. Under him a sufficient number of qualified Inspectors, selected with special reference to their possessing the confidence of the native community, were to be appointed, for the purpose of reporting periodically upon the state of the colleges and schools, whether supported directly by the Government, or by grants-in-aid; of conducting or assisting at the examinations of scholars in the latter class of insti-

tutions; and of generally aiding with their advice the managers and masters of schools.

395. Establishment of Universities; Scholarships; School Books —

At the same time instructions were issued for the establishment of Universities, in order to encourage a regular and liberal course of education by conferring degrees. It was intended that, in connection with the Universities, professorships should be founded, for the delivery of lectures in various branches of learning for the acquisition of which facilities did not exist. The branches of learning specially named were law, civil engineering, and the vernacular and classical languages of India. The necessity, also, for the foundation of scholarships, “by which superior talent in every class may receive that encouragement and development which it deserves,”¹ is repeatedly dwelt on in the Despatch. The system of scholarships, whether free or stipendiary, was intended to link together the different grades of educational institutions; and it was to be so revised and enlarged that the best pupils of inferior schools might be enabled to continue their education in schools of a higher order, and finally to complete it in the affiliated colleges. The promising pupils of indigenous schools were specially named as fit objects for the receipt of scholarships, tenable in places of education of a superior order. The amount of the stipendiary scholarships was to be fixed at such a sum as would suffice for the maintenance of the scholars at the colleges or schools in which they were held, and which might often be at a distance from the homes of the students. Lastly, it was enjoined that the system of scholarships should be established for the benefit, not of Government institutions alone, but of all institutions that were to be brought within the general scheme of education. In addition to these direct methods for the encouragement of learning, indirect methods were also to be employed. Thus, efforts were to be made for the provision of vernacular school-books, the aim of which should be “soto combine the substance of European knowledge with native forms of thought and sentiment as to render them useful and attractive/⁵ It was suggested that such compilations or translations might be “advertised for and liberally rewarded.” And, again, it was hoped that a great stimulus would be given to education by the rule that “where the other qualifications of the candidates for appointments under Government are equal, a person who has received a good education should be preferred to one who has not; and that, even in lower situations, a man who can read and write be preferred to one who cannot, if he is equally eligible in other respects/³ This stimulus was to apply equally to all classes of educational institutions, for it was expressly ordered that the education of candidates for appointments was to be taken into account “irrespective of the place or manner in which it may have been acquired/’

396. Training Schools.—But all measures for the encouragement of learning would be of little use, in the absence of a competent teaching agency. The Despatch of **1854** does not neglect this important subject. “It is indispensable,” says the Court of Directors, in speaking of the schools which they hoped to call into existence in every district of India, “in order fully and efficiently to carry out our views as to these schools, that their masters should possess a knowledge of English in order to acquire, and of the vernaculars so as readily to convey, useful knowledge to their pupils; but we are aware that it is impossible to obtain at present the services of a sufficient number of persons so qualified, and that such a class must be gradually collected and trained in the manner to which we shall hereafter allude/* Further on they write:—“We desire to see the establishment, with as little delay as possible, of training-schools and classes for masters in

^c each. Presidency in India and they explain their intention as follows:—" By "giving to persons who possess an aptness for teaching, as well as the requisite " standard of acquirements, and who are willing to devote themselves to the pro- " fession of schoolmaster, moderate monthly allowances for their support during " the time which it may be requisite for them to pass in normal schools or classes ^s in order to acquire the necessary training, we shall assist many deserving students ^c to qualify themselves for a career of practical usefulness, and one which shall "secure them an] honourable competence through life" To the same effect it was stated that " our wish is that the profession of schoolmaster may, for the "future, afford inducements to the natives of India such as are held out in other "branches of the public service;" and proposals were made for the admission of schoolmasters to the benefit of the pension rules. It was also provided that grants-in-aid should be given to Normal schools under fewer restrictions than to other institutions.

397- Summary of the Relations of the State to private Effort.—The relations of the State to private effort, as indicated in the Despatch of **1854**, may therefore be summed up as follows. The State undertook (i) to give pecuniary assistance on the grant-in-aid system to efficient schools and colleges; (2) to direct their efforts and afford them counsel and advice; (3) to encourage and reward the desire for learning in various ways, * but chiefly by the establishment of Universities; (4) to take measures for providing a due supply of teachers, and for making the profession of teaching honourable and respected. Of all these provisions the most important and far-reaching was the introduction of the grant-in-aid system. .

398. Review of Progress in the Despatch of 1859.—It was found in the Despatch of 1859 that in the rules framed for the allotment of grants-in-aid careful attention had been paid to the foregoing principles. It was also stated in that Despatch that, while the system had been readily accepted by schools of higher education, it had been unsuccessful in its application to those of a lower class. Actual experience had shown that it had been generally difficult, and in many cases impossible, to obtain that local support in the way of subscriptions which formed the main condition of the grant, and that the effort to obtain it placed the agents of Government in a false and unpopular position. Hence, the Secretary of State was of opinion that the grant-in-aid system, as hitherto in force, was unsuited to the supply of vernacular education for the masses of the people, which should be provided, rather by the direct instrumentality of the officers of Government, according to some one of the plans in operation in Bengal for the improvement of indigenous schools, or in the North-Western Provinces for the establishment of circle schools, or by such modification of those schemes as might commend itself to the several Local Governments as best suited to the circumstances of different localities. It was pointed out that no general scheme of popular education could be framed which would be suitable for all parts of India; but at the same time it was declared to be most important to make the greatest possible use of existing schools, and of the masters to whom, however inefficient as teachers, the people had been accustomed to look up with respect. The example of the North-Western Provinces in levying a local rate assessed upon the land for the provision of elementary schools was quoted with approbation; and the Government was desired to consider carefully the expediency of imposing a special rate in other Provinces, in order to provide funds for the same purpose.

399. Necessity of encouraging private Effort; Limitations of the Policy of Withdrawal—The Despatch also pointed out, in reference to the

small number of scholars in the Government colleges and schools of higher education, that there was ample scope for the employment of every form of agency that could be brought into the field of educational labour; and urged that every agency likely to engage in the work with earnestness and efficiency should be made use of and fostered. It laid stress on the great advantage of promoting in the native community a spirit of self-reliance, in opposition to the habit of depending on Government for the supply of local wants; and it accordingly declared that if Government should accept the duty of placing elementary education within reach of the general population, those persons or classes who required more than this might, as a general rule, be left to exert themselves to procure it, with or without the assistance of Government. But in summarising the objects of the Despatch of 1854, it made no further reference to the withdrawal of Government from any of its own institutions, or to their transfer to the management of local bodies. On the contrary, it stated, what had not before been stated so explicitly, that one of the objects of that Despatch was the increase, where necessary, of the number of Government colleges and schools,—a declaration which was repeated and enforced in the Despatch of the 23rd January 1864. Moreover, while it has been often reiterated as a general principle that Government should withdraw, wherever possible, from the direct maintenance and management of institutions of the higher class, stress has always been laid upon the need of caution in the practical application of the principle. Thus, in the Despatch No. 6 of the Secretary of State, dated 14th May 1862, it is expressly said that in any such withdrawal “attention must necessarily be given to local circumstances,” and that “Her Majesty’s Government are unwilling that a Government school should be given up in any place where the inhabitants show a marked desire that it should be maintained, or where there is a manifest disinclination, on the part of the people, to send their children to the private schools of the neighbourhood.” And again, in Despatch No. 6 of the Secretary of State, dated the 26th May 1870, in reply to a proposal from the Government of India “to reduce the Government expenditure on colleges in Bengal to an equality with the sum total of the endowments and fees of the colleges/ the fear is expressed lest the proposal would tend entirely to paralyse the action of high education in Bengal,” and that “a large and sudden reduction in the Government grant will tend to the diminution, rather than the augmentation, of private liberality.” Thus, while the time has always been looked forward to when, in the words of the Despatch of 1854, “many of the existing Government institutions, especially those of the higher order, may be safely closed or transferred to the management of local bodies under the control of, and aided by the State,” more recent Despatches have laid particular emphasis on the further statement, “it is far from our wish to check the spread of education in the slightest degree by the abandonment of a single school to probable decay.”

400. Limitation of State Expenditure in higher Schools.—The necessity of requiring the wealthier classes to contribute to the cost of their education, and thus to make Government schools more self-supporting than before, was strongly insisted on in 1861,* in reference to the levy of fees in high schools, when it was declared to be impossible, even if desirable, that the State should bear the whole expense of education in so densely populated a country as India. A similar view was expressed in 1864,† when it was laid down that, in determining the distribution of expenditure between different classes of education, the resources of the State should, as far as possible, be so applied as to assist those who could not be expected to help themselves, and that the richer classes of the

* Despatch No. 14, dated 8th April 1861.
† No. 13, dated 25th April 1864.

us for the year 1881-82; (4) the extent to which the people of the country have come forward to help in the education of the community at large; and (5) the degree of efficiency attained by the various classes of institutions that are the outcome of private effort. With reference to the second and third of these topics, it is necessary to give some explanation at this point. The education of Europeans and Eurasians (which is conducted all but exclusively on the footing of grants-in-aid) is not among the subjects we have been instructed to discuss, and therefore our statement will not give the entire results of private enterprise in education. In treating, however, of years previous to 1881-82, it is for the most part impossible to disentangle the statistics referring to institutions for natives alone from those that refer to the entire number of aided institutions. In our brief account, therefore, of the history of private effort, it will be understood that we include efforts made for the instruction of Europeans and Eurasians. In most cases it is impossible for us to do otherwise; and the difference, at least in those Provinces where there has been any large amount of private effort, is not of much importance. But when we come to the actual present state of aided education, we shall strictly confine our view to the part taken by private effort in the general education of natives of the country, and to the amount of aid extended to the efforts made in their behalf. This will explain discrepancies that might otherwise be perplexing, and in particular it will show why there is sometimes an apparent falling off in the year 1881-82, about which we shall have most to say, as compared with the years immediately preceding. This is not the only difficulty that meets us in comparing recent with earlier years. Another is that there have been various changes in the method of classifying schools. Thus in most Provinces, primary departments attached to middle schools, and primary and middle departments attached to high schools, are now reckoned as separate institutions, instead of being included with the more advanced department, as was formerly the case everywhere, and as is still the case in Bengal and Assam. Also, many schools are now classed as primary which were formerly treated as secondary, and some as secondary which were formerly treated as primary. For such reasons no perfectly exact comparison is possible between the figures for 1881-82 and those for any year previous to 1879, when the new classification was generally introduced. The comparisons which it is necessary for us to make with earlier years, and particularly with 1870-71, in this and in other portions of the Report, will be as accurate as we have any means of making them; but while trustworthy so far as concerns the general impression they will leave, they must not be regarded as exact in every detail. It is also necessary to explain the means we have used for appraising the efficiency of aided schools. Success at examinations, though in many ways a highly unsatisfactory test of real usefulness, is yet the only basis on which a definite enquiry into the efficiency of a school can proceed, and we accordingly called for such returns as would show the comparative success at examinations of institutions in the hands of the Department and of those that have taken their origin from private effort. We judged it necessary, however, to guard against any misconception arising from the practice, followed in some schools, of preventing pupils who are unlikely to pass from appearing for examination, or of allowing them to withdraw from school before the time comes for sending up their names for examination, in order that the proportion of those passed to those examined may appear as large as possible. To avoid any such misconception, we asked for returns of the proportion passed to the total number at the beginning of the year on the rolls of the class examined. There are objections to this form of statement also, as in the course of the year a class may either greatly dwindle or greatly increase; and in either case the number passing the examination at the end of the year is not a correct index of the efficiency attained. Still, we regard this comparison as the closest approximation we

can make to an accurate test of success in the work of instruction. Most of the Provinces have put the results of their examinations in the required form. In some cases this has been found impossible, and in these (each of which will be noted in its proper place) we have nothing better to rely on than the test of the proportion between the number of pupils passed and the number sent up for examination from departmental and privately-managed institutions respectively. Finally, we would explain that in considering the amount of assistance rendered by the State to private effort, we have not attempted to calculate the money value of the aid afforded to schools under private managers in the form of direction and inspection.

403. Madras: Private Effort in 1854.—In Madras it might have been expected that the new policy would meet with speedy success. To all appearance the way had been well prepared for it. Long before 1854 the demand for a knowledge of English was far from inconsiderable, and many schools were in existence in which the instruction given was of a European type; and experience has shown—as the Despatch of 1854 pointed out—that such schools form the foundation on which a system of grants-in-aid can be based most easily. The State, it is true, had done but little to awaken a taste for English education. There were only three advanced Government schools in existence when the Department was organised. But the people of the country themselves had established English schools. In those conducted by Pachaiyappah's Trustees alone, more than a thousand pupils were being educated. Missionaries also, by whom the desire for English education had first been kindled, were doing probably more than in any other part of India to meet the desire they had awakened. It is known that in 1851 there were in various parts of the Presidency about 1,000 mission schools with some 30,000 pupils, of whom probably 3,000 were receiving at least the elements of a liberal culture, while all were being trained after western methods. The number both of schools and scholars had probably increased by 1854. The indigenous schools also were numerous in all parts of the country. Even in 1826, long before any general State system of education was established, 12,000 such schools were roughly ascertained to be at work with more than 160,000 pupils; and whatever else such schools may have done or not done, they must at least have familiarised the popular mind with the idea of self-help in matters of elementary education. Altogether the facts of the case seemed to warrant the anticipation which is implied in these words of the Despatch of 1854 *The Presidency of Madras* “ offers a fair field for the adoption of our scheme of education in its integrity, “ by founding Government Anglo-vernacular institutions, only where no such “places of instruction at present exist which might, by grants-in-aid and “ other assistance, adequately supply the educational wants of the people. ”

404. Madras: History of private Effort.—Yet the system of aided education was very slow in taking root. The first rules under which grants were offered were published in August 1855; but although a few schools applied for aid under them and received it on a liberal scale, especially in the form of aid for buildings, the greater number of the privately-managed schools already in existence went on independently of Government, and it does not appear that the offer of aid led to the opening of any appreciable number of new schools. The failure so far of the grant-in-aid system was ascribed by the Director of **Public Instruction** in 1858 to the want of definiteness and precision in the rules, so that managers did not really know what obligations they might be brought under by accepting aid. But it was due probably quite as much to the fact that private managers were content with their institutions as they existed, and had little desire to extend their sphere of usefulness. New rules

were introduced in 1858, which, had for their leading feature that system of aiding in the payment of certificated teachers which is known as the salary, grant system, and which will be described hereafter in detail. The new rules were minute and detailed to a degree, yet but little extension of aided education followed. Managers seemed still to be for the most part disinclined to co-operate with Government. It was not till a third set of rules came into force, on the 1st of January 1865, that the system fairly took root. The new rules, in framing which there had been much and prolonged consultation with those interested in non-Government education, were better adapted to actual circumstances. They were less minute and more liberal than those of 1858, especially in the way of giving some aid on account of teachers who were qualified but uncertificated, and in introducing the system of payment by results for elementary schools. The revised system of salary grants produced a marked effect at once, but the details of the rules under which payment according to results was offered were found to be unsuitable, and these rules remained for some time almost a dead letter. They were issued in a revised form on the 1st of January 1868, and under the Code thus completed, by which elementary schools are aided mainly on the system of payment by results, and schools of a higher order on the system of salary grants, the success of aided education in Madras has been unequivocal and great. When the new impulse was given in 1865, there were but 502 schools receiving aid. In the following year the number was 896, and by 1870-71, when the revised rules for payment by results had produced some effect, it had risen to 2,604. The grant from Imperial funds had risen from about Rs. 50,000 in 1863-64 to about Rs. 3,35,000 in 1870-71. The sum thus spent was met by much larger contributions from private sources; for while the gross outlay on non-Government education connected with the State system, had been only Rs. 2,46,000 in 1863-64, it had risen in 1870-71 to Rs. 10,39,000. Thus an increased outlay of Rs. 2,85,000 from public funds was met by an addition of Rs. 7,93,000 to the contributions from private sources, most of which represented an actual increase to the funds available for the spread of education. Since 1871 the progress of aided education has upon the whole continued, and that in spite of great temporary reductions in the total amount spent on grants. The grants from all public sources reached their highest amount, viz., Rs. 5,70,000, in the year 1877-78. In the following year they suddenly fell to Rs. 4,44,000, and in 1879-80 to Rs. 4,02,000; since which time they have again risen. Thus, in 1878-79 grants were reduced by Rs. 1,26,000, and in the following year by Rs. 42,000 more. The reduction was due in part to the after-effects of the terrible famine of 1877-78. Results grants, which were those mainly affected by the famine, fell by Rs. 1,05,000 in the one year 1878-79, though they rose again by Rs. 2,000 in the following year. This fall was partly caused by the smaller number of children able to attend school, but also to a large extent by a sudden raising of the standards, and a simultaneous lowering of the amount assigned for passing them,—steps, however, that were soon retraced. Thus, quite apart from the fall in the results grants, and therefore only to a small extent the effect of famine, there was a reduction of Rs. 21,000 in the total amount of grants in 1878-79, and a further reduction of Rs. 44,000 in 1879-80. This reduction in grants was accompanied by measures which steadily increased the outlay on direct departmental education. The expenditure on departmental institutions from Provincial funds alone rose year by year from Rs. 2,13,000 in 1874-75 to Rs. 3,07,000 in 1880-81, and to Rs. 3*26,000 in 1881-82. On Government colleges alone the net outlay increased from Rs. 80,000 in 1874-75 to Rs. 1,22,000 in 1880-81, and to Rs. 1,30,000 in 1881-82. Such changes appear to indicate a polity less favourable to private effort than had previously prevailed. But its vitality appears from the facts that while in 1871-72 aided

schools numbered about 3[^]000 with 98,000 pupils, they had risen in 1877-78 to 5[>]4[°] with 166,000 pupils; that though their number fell off in the two succeeding years, it did not fall in anything like the same proportion as the grants; and that as soon as grants increased, they rose far beyond their former number, so that in 1880-81 there were 6,000 aided schools with 178,000 pupils, and in the following year 7*800 such schools with 223,000 pupils. These figures include schools for Europeans and Eurasians, as well as for natives. It is noteworthy that this great advance had been made, speaking generally, along the whole educational line. Thus in 1881-82 there were 12 aided colleges (one being for Europeans and Eurasians), against 7 in 1870-71; 1,124 English and 6,343 vernacular schools for boys against 412 and 1,839 in 1870-71; while the total of aided girls' schools had risen in the same eleven years from 111 to 341. It will however appear in the sequel that aided secondary education, considered by itself, has somewhat fallen off in recent years.

405. Madras: Present Amount of private Effort—In 1881-82 the amount laid out on grants-in-aid for the general education of natives alone (aided schools for Europeans and Eurasians being now left out of view) was Es. 2,09,500 from Provincial Revenues, and Es. 2,95,500 from Local and Municipal Funds. The gross outlay on the institutions thus receiving aid was Us. 14,69,000. In other words, by an annual expenditure of Rs. 5,05,000 of public money, the State secured the co-operation of agencies expending nearly three times that amount. Of the whole 387,600 pupils attending schools connected in any way with the Department, 218,300, or 56*3 per cent., were in aided schools, 114,600, or 29*6 per cent., being in unaided schools; while only 54,700, or 14*1 per cent., were in Government schools, which include Local and Municipal as well as departmental institutions. The system of aided education was also found applicable to every branch of education. Thus of the 340,000 boys in the primary stage of instruction, 192,000, or 56*5 per cent., were in aided, while 103,000, or 30*3 per cent., were in unaided, and 45,000, or 13*2 per cent., in Government schools, that is, in schools managed either by the Department or by Local or Municipal Boards. Similarly, of the 24,000 boys in the secondary stage of instruction, 13,000, or 54*2 per cent., were in aided schools, while of the remainder 4,700, or 19*6 per cent., were in unaided, and 6,300, or 26*2 per cent., in Government schools. Of the 1,669 students at English colleges, 803, or 48*1 per cent., were attending aided colleges, 124, or 7*4 per cent., being in unaided, and the remaining 742, or 44*5 per cent., in Government colleges. Again, with regard to female education, of the 35,000 girls at school, about 14,000 attend boys' schools, the great majority of whom are no doubt in aided schools, though there are not materials for determining the exact proportion. Of the remaining 21,000 attending schools for girls alone, ^{12,000}, or 57*1 Per cent., are in aided schools, while 6,800, or 32*4 P&T cent., are in unaided, and 2,200, or 10*5 per cent., in Government schools.

In Madras, however, the unaided institutions must be taken into account in judging of the fruit of the policy initiated in 1854*. They are nearly all indigenous schools, which by the hope of grants-in-aid have been brought into connection with the State, and are being gradually developed and improved. In the words of the Director of Public Instruction, they are to all intents "and purposes schools which are preparing gradually to enter into the category of aided institutions." In this point of view it becomes necessary to add the pupils in unaided to those in aided institutions, if the impulse given to education by the development of the system of grants-in-aid is to be estimated aright. Doubtless, most of the children attending schools that are still unaided would be in attendance if the State had never interested itself in education at all, but

it may be presumed that the effect of the State system is to raise the standard of education in all schools that come within the range of its influence. Reckoning in this way, it appears that the proportion of the whole education existing in the Province which has resulted, either directly or indirectly, from the policy of evoking private effort, stands as follows:—There are 340,000 boys in the primary stage of instruction, of whom 295,000, or 86·7 per cent., are in schools that are the result of private effort, that is, in aided and unaided schools together. In the secondary stage of instruction there are 24,000 boys, of whom 17,700, or 73·8 per cent., are in schools that are maintained by private effort. In the stage of English collegiate instruction there are 1,669 students, of whom 927, or 55·8 per cent., are in colleges that are the result of private effort. Of the 21,000 girls in whose case it is possible to state how the schools that they attend are managed, 18,800, or 89·5 per cent., are in schools that are the result of private effort. On the whole, almost 86 per cent, of the entire number under instruction in Madras are attending institutions maintained by private effort. Similarly if to the Rs. 14,69,000 spent on the maintenance of aided institutions be added, the expenditure on unaided institutions, which is estimated at Rs. 3,51,800, it appears that by an outlay of Rs. 5,05,000 from public funds the State has secured the co-operation of private agencies expending Rs. 18,20,800, or more than three and a half times the amount of State aid.

406. Madras: Native private Effort.—But it is not the spread of education only that deserves attention in connection with the system of grants-in-aid. It should also be noticed what the agencies are that have responded to the appeal. In the early days of the system few but missionary bodies came forward to work under it, but it was not very long in evoking the energies of the people of the country themselves. Statistics are not available to illustrate this point in full detail, but it is known that, in 1865-66, the year in which the system made its first great start, Hindu managers of schools received grants to the amount of only Rs. 34,400 against Rs. 92,400 drawn by other managers,—Rs. 65,000 of the latter sum being assigned to such, missionary bodies as were making educational efforts, and the remaining Rs. 27,000 being probably granted to the managers of non-missionary schools for Europeans and Eurasians. But a marked change soon took place; for even in 1870-71 native managers of schools drew grants amounting to Rs. 1,68,000 as against Rs. 1,95,000 drawn by other managers. In 1875-76 the grants drawn by native and by other managers were Rs. 2,97,000 and Rs. 2,19,000 respectively, and the figures stood in 1881-82 at Rs. 3,35,700 against Rs. 1,64,600. This rise in the grants paid to native managers was no more than commensurate with the increase of native effort in education. While very few schools of the modern type were managed by natives in 1865-66, 1,900 were managed by them in 1870-71, and no fewer than 6,355 in 1881-82. Thus native effort had far outstripped all other effort, for the total number of aided institutions under other than native management had only risen from 475 in 1870-71 to 1,347 in 1881-82. It thus appears how largely the people of the country take part in its education. Elementary education, so far as it is aided, is already mainly in their hands; for out of the 6,355 aided schools conducted by the people for themselves, 5,654 are purely vernacular, while only 915 vernacular schools in receipt of aid are under other than native management. The unaided schools under regular inspection, which amount to 6,146 and are nearly all elementary in character, are with exceedingly few exceptions under native management. The great bulk of the lower education of the country has thus come to be provided and managed by the people for themselves, and is only supervised and aided by the State. Native effort is, however, by no means confined to lower education, but under

the influence of grants-in-aid has expanded rapidly in all directions. Thus while in 1870*7! only 287 aided English schools and no colleges were conducted by native managers, there were 698 English schools and 3 colleges so conducted in 1881-82.

407. Madras: Efficiency of the Education provided by private Effort.

—It remains to examine into the efficiency of the institutions that owe their origin to the private effort which has been elicited by the system of grants-in-aid. In Madras the only public examinations for which pupils from institutions under all varieties of management are in the habit of appearing, and the only ones accordingly that are available as tests, are the three examinations of the University and the middle school examination, which last is conducted by examiners appointed from among the officers of the Department and others interested in education, by the Commissioner for the Uncovenanted Service examinations, who is also the Director of Public Instruction. When the examination test is applied in the manner that has been explained above, it appears that in Madras aided education stands very nearly on the same level in point of efficiency as that which is given by the Department directly. In 1881-82, the results of which do not in all probability differ materially from those in other years, it is found that at the B.A. examination 44 per cent, of the students of departmental colleges and 36 per cent, of the students of aided colleges were successful. At the First Examination in Arts the proportion of the students of departmental and of aided colleges that passed was exactly equals the percentage being 27 for both classes of institutions. In the matriculation examination 18 per cent, of the pupils on the roll of the matriculation classes of departmental high schools at the beginning of the year were successful, and 15 percent, of those on the roll of the corresponding classes in aided high schools. At the middle school examination the percentage that passed of those who at the beginning of the year were on the roll of the class examined, was in departmental schools 10 and in aided schools 12. Thus, judged by the test of examinations, aided colleges were nearly but not quite upon a par with departmental colleges, aided high schools a little inferior to departmental high schools, and aided middle schools a little superior. If due weight be given to the remarks of the Madras Provincial Committee, that “ individual aided and other schools will “stand favourable comparison with any individual Government ones/⁵ and that “ it is to be borne in mind that Government schools are all under one general “ direction, working on one uniform system, while aided and other are under every “ variety of management,” it will become plain that the education which has been in this Province the result of private effort is full of hope as regards its quality, as well as its extent.

408. Madras * Summary.—Thus it appears that in Madras, in spite of delay and difficulty for many years, there is no room now to doubt the success of the scheme of grants-in-aid or its applicability to every stage and form of general education. It has proved its fitness to accomplish under special rules, if not all, yet a very large part of what is needed even in the field of primary instruction. The confidence felt in the capabilities of the system is so great that the Provincial Committee, in referring to Local Fund Boards and Municipalities, ^{et} feel constrained to question whether the funds which such “ bodies can devote to education would not secure very much greater results if ^{CE} spent in aiding independent schools than they can do when spent in maintaining *quasi*-Government institutions.⁵³ And again, in summarising its recommendations, the Committee speaks of “the desirability of having no “ schools maintained by Municipalities, those bodies confining themselves to aiding private schools, their power to open schools under their own management

“ being limited to cases -where it had been clearly shown that the educational wants of the town could not otherwise be provided for.”

409. Bombay: Private Effort in 1854.—In Bombay there were in 1854 a number of non-Government schools (irrespective of schools of an indigenous character), which might have been expected to serve as a basis for carrying out the policy of aiding and so increasing private educational effort. The number of such schools was, however, considerably smaller than in Madras. It would, indeed, have been much greater if the schools under the management of the Board of Education were reckoned as the result of private effort; but that association seems rather to have regarded itself as acting temporarily in the place of Government, and accordingly it ceased to exist as soon as the State began to take part in education through officers of its own. Accurate statistics are not available for the schools that were being carried on in 1854 by other agencies than the Board of Education; but it is believed that Missionary Societies were then maintaining about 130 schools with about 7,000 pupils, while under native managers there were estimated to be 96 schools on a European model, with about 7,000 pupils. Purely private effort had thus originated and was maintaining about 230 schools with 14,000 pupils, as against more than 1,000 schools with at least 30,000 pupils enumerated in Madras. The difference in population does something to redress the balance, but 14,000 pupils among the 15 millions in the British districts of Bombay was less proportionately than 30,000 among the 26 millions of Madras. It may be remarked in passing that no fewer than 3,500 of the 14,000 pupils who were being educated by strictly private effort in Bombay are believed to have been girls. The indigenous schools also, which have played so important a part in the development of aided education in Madras, were weaker in Bombay. Enquiries made in 1823, although not exhaustive, were held to show that there were but 1,500 such schools in the Province, attended by 31,000 children, as against the 12,000 schools with 160,000 pupils that were ascertained to exist in Madras in 1826. Thus the foundation for a system of encouragement to private effort, though considerable, was less broad than in the neighbouring Presidency.

410. Bombay: History of private Effort.—The dissolution of the Board of Education* which was the first direct result of the Despatch of 1854, left on the hands of Government the 4 colleges, the 30 English and 256 Vernacular schools for general education, attended by an aggregate of 24,000 pupils, which that Board had previously been managing either in the Presidency or in the Native States connected with it. It was natural in such circumstances that the newly formed Department should at first give its main attention to direct operations, and should think little for a time of aiding or extending the efforts of private parties. Rules for grants-in-aid were, however, promulgated in 1855. The attempt to apply them to primary education was abandoned in 1858, and even for the higher schools conducted by Native managers on a European model, they were found so stringent as to be totally inoperative. In the Report of the Provincial Committee it is stated that a revised draft was submitted to the Supreme Government, which in May 1858 declared it premature then to consider the question, and recommended that the existing rules should remain in force. Mr. Howard, too, who came into office as Director in 1856, objected to any aid being given to the schools long maintained by missionary societies. Even after the Despatch of 1859 had re-affirmed the eligibility of such schools for aid, no advances were made to them till 1863. When aid was offered in that year, the managers of the schools maintained by Missionary Societies found it to be “ so illiberal as to make it not worth while to offer their schools for inspection under the rules in question.” In 1864, while offi-

dating for Mr. Howard, Sir Alexander Grant, after full consultation with Missionaries and other managers of private schools, drew up a Code of rules, under which those interested in non-Government education were at least able to anticipate that substantial encouragement would be given to private effort; It was not, however, till Sir Alexander Grant came into office as Director in 1865 that this Code began to be carried into effect. The system of grants-in-aid, thus at length introduced, had the plan of "payment by results" as its main feature, and will be described hereafter in detail.

Thus the history of aided education in Bombay does not begin till 1865; for although a few grants were being given before that date, they were purely of an exceptional kind, and "chiefly to charitable institutions, some of which enjoyed fixed yearly grants under agreements accepted by Government before the constitution of the Educational Department." These few exceptional grants had no influence on the general scheme of education. By 1865 the plan of direct State action had taken root, the 24,000 pupils handed over by the Board of Education having grown into 66,000. Thus, whatever view may be held on the question of whether any other policy had been practicable or not, it is obvious that before private effort began to be aided and developed, education as a whole had been cast in a departmental mould.

The system of grants-in-aid has not, however, been inoperative since 1865. Still, the part played by private effort has been so small comparatively, that it is unnecessary to trace its history in such detail as in the case of Madras. A few of the chief points need alone be touched on. So soon as a practicable offer of aid was made, 31 schools came forward and received grants amounting to Rs. 24,000. By 1870-71 the amount awarded under the ordinary rules had risen to Rs. 47,000, and in that year an aided college received a building grant of Rs. 61,000. In spite of a temporary reduction, which will be afterwards referred to, the grants-in-aid, excluding building grants and those others of an exceptional character to which reference has just been made, rose from Rs. 47,000 in 1870-71 to Rs. 86,400 in 1875-76, and to Rs. 87,900 in 1881-82, including, it must, however, be remembered, the grants to schools for Europeans and Eurasians. At the same time the building and other special grants for 1881-82 amounted to Rs. 54,000. The 31 institutions receiving aid in 1865-66 had increased to 85 in 1870-71 to 263 in 1875-76 and to 307 in 1881-82. Of these, 251 are schools for natives. Thus aided education has made considerable progress relatively, though its total amount is still but small.'

411. Bombay: Present Amount of private Effort—In 1881-82,—in all statements for which date private effort for the education of Europeans and Eurasians is left out of view,—the 251 aided institutions for the general education of natives were attended by 19,600 pupils, or only 5 per cent, of the whole number of pupils in the institutions connected with the Department. The gross outlay on these aided institutions was Rs. 2,96,000, of which Rs. 83,500 was met by grants from Provincial Revenues, and Rs. 31,000 by grants from Local and Municipal Funds, so that the aid from public sources amounted to Rs. 86,600, or 29 per cent, of the gross outlay by the managers. The amount thus contributed from private sources for the spread of education is but Rs. 2,09,000, as against Rs. 13,15,800 so expended in Madras on all classes of institutions maintained by private effort. In collegiate, secondary, and female education, private effort, so far as it is recognised by the State, is an auxiliary of some importance, but in regard to primary education it effects but little. Thus of 313,000 boys in the primary stage of instruction, only 9,500, or 3 per cent., are in aided schools. Of the 20,000 in the secondary stage of instruction, however, 5,000, or 25 per cent., are in aided schools, and of the 475 m&tri«

1, 1 c-hifftnts I to or 2QM per cent., are in aided colleges. Of the 20,500 girls at schools that are purely girls' schools, 4,900, or nearly 34 cent., are in aided schools. Of the 4,000 girls that are receiving instruction in schools intended primarily for boys, all, with unimportant exceptions, are in schools under departmental management. The unaided schools under regular management in Sir cannot, like those of Madras, be regarded as in any sense the fruit of the encouragement afforded to private effort. With exceptions too few to be taken into account in this general review, they are connected with the Presidency, and are supported by the revenue of those States and managed by officers of the Department. They thus fall under the head of departmental rather than of privately managed institutions.

41.9 Bombay - Native private Effort.-In Bombay the extent to which the people of the country have come forward under the grant-in-aid rules to take a share in the general system of education has always been small. The number of aided schools under native managers, which rose from 23 in 1870-71 to 188 in 1875-76, fell to 118 in 1876-77, but since that date has again increased to 142 in 1881-82. The grants drawn by such managers, which rose from Rs. 14,000 in 1870-71 to Rs. 30,800 in 1875-76, had similarly fallen to Rs. 27,600 in 1881-82. No colleges and only 13 English schools are being conducted by native managers in co-operation with the State. In this connection however, there are two points that should be noted. The cess, which now supplies not much under a half of the entire amount of public funds spent on education in the Province, was voluntary in its origin, or at any rate for the first few years had no legal basis. From 1865 to 1869 when the cess was imposed by law, the primary schools then in existence were almost wholly supported by popular contributions, though they were under departmental management. When schools so maintained came to be supported by a rate, it was natural that voluntary effort should fall off. Also, there is a considerable number of important schools under native managers which do not appear in the departmental returns at all. These are to be found chiefly in the cities of Bombay and Poona, where fees can be levied at such rates as to meet the expenses of the school and afford a livelihood to the managers in addition. In other Provinces, at all events in Madras and Bengal, schools of the same class exist, but they are probably more numerous in the city of Bombay than anywhere else except in Calcutta. In the former city there are 9 independent secondary schools attended by certainly not less than 2,300 pupils. There are also a number of indigenous schools, as shown in Chapter III, which, although they have received no assistance from the State, have increased with the popular demand for education. Thus native private effort outside the arrangements of the State takes some considerable share in the education of the Province.

41.3. Bombay: Efficiency of the Education provided by private

Efficiency. In determining into the efficiency of the education which is the result of private effort, we adopt the same mode of reckoning that we have followed in speaking of Madras. In **Bombay**, however, the examinations under the various standards have been so co-ordinated and applied to both departmental and aided schools that it is possible to institute a comparison at every stage of instruction between the two classes of institutions. In colleges, as tested by the whole series of University examinations, the percentage of success is for departmental colleges 28.8, and for aided 27.3. Departmental high schools, as tested by the matriculation examination, stand at aided high schools at 116 per cent. The percentages of success in middle schools, as determined by the middle school examination, are for departmental schools 19.3, and for aided schools 14.3. In primary schools, as tested by ex-

animations in six different standards, the percentages are for departmental schools 39*3, and for aided 32. It appears accordingly that in point of efficiency as tested by the examinations of 1881 -82, aided colleges are nearly on a par with those managed by the Department, and aided high schools exactly so; while aided middle and aided primary schools are distinctly but not greatly inferior to departmental schools.

414. Bombay : Summary,—Thus in Bombay, for reasons already given, there was great delay in carrying out those provisions of the Despatch of 1854 which relate to private effort. Such private effort, however, as has been elicited by the system of grants-in-aid, contributes an element to the means of education which is sound and useful so far as it goes, though it does comparatively little to help in meeting the educational wants of the community at large and shows no signs at present of rapid or great development.

415. Bengal: Private Effort in 1854 ,—Bengal stands pre-eminent among the Provinces for the ease and the speedy success which attended the introduction of the system of grants-in-aid. As in Madras and Bombay, the way was prepared by the existence before 1854 of a large number of schools that were the outcome of private enterprise. Materials are not indeed available for such an approximate statement of the number of schools and scholars as is possible in the case of Madras, or even for such a reasonable estimate as has been made in the case of Bombay. It is probable, however, that, at least in the great centres of population, and particularly in Calcutta, the amount of private educational enterprise that existed before it came to be aided by the State was much greater than in either of the other Provinces. So early as 1817 the Hindu College had been founded by the people for themselves with the view of promoting a knowledge of English and of western learning; and English schools of various descriptions became numerous both in Calcutta and elsewhere during the succeeding years. The State also had done much to awaken a desire for English education; seven colleges and sixteen English schools were directly maintained; by 1830 14,000 pupils in 220 schools. In these various ways there had come into existence among the people a wide-spread desire for education of a European type, and a corresponding willingness to take advantage of any means that might enable them to obtain it. At the same time, as has already been shown in this Report, the indigenous schools of Bengal possessed remarkable vitality; and though many years had still to elapse before they were brought under the influence of any scheme for grants-in-aid, they must have made the idea familiar to the public mind that the provision of the means of education is a proper object for private effort.

416. Bengal: History of private Effort—It is not surprising therefore that the system of grants-in-aid was taken advantage of very quickly. Rules under which grants could be obtained by private managers, were speedily framed; and in sixteen months after their publication 219 schools were already in receipt of aid, chiefly, however, in the metropolitan Districts. The entire allowance for aid to private schools, which was fixed at first at but 5 per cent, of the outlay on Government institutions, was speedily taken up. It was found necessary to increase the allowance year by year, until in 1863 it amounted to 33 per cent, of the amount spent upon institutions managed directly by the Department. By that time there were 989 institutions of various kinds in receipt of aid; and of the 70,000 pupils under departmental supervision, 48,500, or 69*3 per cent., were studying in aided schools. The amount of

grants drawn by these schools had come in 1862-63 to be Rs. 1,60,000, which, since the total outlay on these schools was Rs. 4,02,000, had been the means of evoking Rs. 2,42,000 from other, sources. Under the influence of the rules in force, which will be described afterwards in detail, private effort continued to increase, until in 1870-71 there were in existence 3,856 aided institutions of various kinds with 136,000 pupils, or 82·8 per cent, of the entire number then in schools connected in any way with the Department. The grants had risen from Rs. 1,60,000 in 1862-63 to Rs. 5,47,500 in 1870-71, but the total outlay on aided institutions had increased still more rapidly. As just mentioned, this total outlay had been Rs. 4,02,000 in 1862-63. It amounted to Rs. 14,09,000 in 1870-71. Thus by increasing its annual expenditure from public funds by Rs. 3,87,500, Government had secured the co-operation for the spread of education of agencies expending an additional sum of no less than Rs. 10,07,000 per annum. Since 1870-71 the chief occurrence in the history of aided education has been the application of its fundamental principle under special rules to the indigenous schools which are stated to have existed from time immemorial in almost every village. This has been fully described in the Chapter devoted to primary education and need not be again recounted. Independently of the indigenous schools thus brought in, the number of aided schools, both English and vernacular, did indeed increase during the eleven years between 1870-71 and 1881-82, but the increase was trifling compared with what had characterised the ten years preceding. This was partly the result of restrictions imposed in 1870-71 on the issue of new grants to secondary schools, which for a time raised a doubt in the public mind as to the policy intended to be pursued by Government. The restrictions were, however, removed by the issue of new grant-in-aid rules in 1872, but the new demands made upon the Provincial revenues during this period by primary education rendered it impossible, in the absence of a local cess and without reducing the outlay on departmental education, to increase the allotments for grants-in-aid to secondary schools and colleges, so as to enable the Department to meet any new claims that might arise.

417. Bengal: Present Amount of private Effort.—But whatever improvement has taken place or may yet take place in the indigenous schools, now that they are being brought under departmental control, must be attributed to the application to them in a special form of the system of aiding, and thereby increasing, private effort. In this point of view both the schools of indigenous origin that are already in receipt of aid and those under inspection in order that they may become qualified to receive aid, must be included in this brief notice. So reckoning, it is noteworthy that of the whole

1,042,000 pupils that in 1881-82 were attending schools connected in any way with the Department, 920,000, or 88·3 per cent., were in aided schools, and 1,011,000, or 97 per cent., in schools that are the result of private effort, that is, aided and unaided schools taken together. The gross outlay on aided institutions for general education in 1881-82 was Rs. 31,32,000, of which Rs. 8,37,000 was met by grants from Provincial revenues and Rs. 26,600 by grants from Local and Municipal funds. Thus with an expenditure of Rs. 8,63,600 of public money, private agencies spending more than 31 lakhs were brought into co-operation with the State. If to this be added Rs. 37,000, the estimated total cost of the unaided schools, which it is hoped that the prospect of receiving aid will in the course of time develop and improve, it appears that the contribution of little more than 8[^] lakhs per annum from public funds has brought into connection with the Department managers who spend for educational purposes an annual sum of 35 lakhs, or more than four times the amount. If the expenditure on primary schools and the aid that **they** receive be eliminated,

on the ground that the expenditure on the primary schools of indigenous origin is to a large extent merely an estimate, the general result remains substantially the same. Taking collegiate and secondary education alone, the grants amount to Rs. 3,05,000, and the total expenditure to Rs. 10,66,000, or three and a half times the contribution from public funds. This does not include the outlay on unaided colleges, concerning which information is not forthcoming. If such outlay were added to the ascertained expenditure, the total would approach four times the amount granted from public funds.

It may be further observed that the system of grants-in-aid has been found in Bengal to be fitted to provide and extend the means of education at every stage except the very highest. No college has been brought into existence by the system. The five colleges which receive aid have no doubt been benefited by the grants that they receive, but they existed before the system was applied, and are in no sense its product. So, too, there is no aided college under native management, and the unaided colleges conducted by native managers are all in Calcutta. Outside the capital, no college ever sprang up except those maintained by the Department, until one was founded very recently by the munificence of the Maharaja of Burdwan. In these points there is a striking contrast to Madras with its 14 non-Government colleges for natives, of which nearly all are the fruit of the grant-in-aid system, 12 prein country Districts, and 5 (three aided and two unaided) are under native management.

But at all other stages of education, the aided system in Bengal has been an unequivocal success. Of the 1,891 secondary schools, 1,370, or 72*4 percent., are aided, and 276, or 14*7 per cent., unaided, making 87 per cent. that are the result of private effort, while only 245, or 13 per cent., are maintained by the Department. Primary education is, as has been already shown, almost wholly carried on by private effort, and of the 1,013 girls' schools, only two are departmental.

418. Bengal: Native private Effort.—'Unflce Madras, Bengal has, from the outset, been remarkable for the extent to which private enterprise in education has been displayed by the people of the country themselves. In 1869-70, the earliest year for which the distribution can be made, above 1,400 aided schools for natives' were under native managers and were in receipt of grants amounting to Rs. 3,12,000, as against less than 200 schools under other than native managers with a grant of less than Rs. 70,000. The disproportion was not quite so great in 1881-82; for while the number of institutions under native managers was still below 1,500 with a grant of Rs. 3,23,000, those under other than native management had risen to 469 with grants amounting to Rs. 90,000. The indigenous schools, of which such vast numbers have been brought in the interval within the operation of the grant-in-aid system, and which are under purely native management, are excluded from the above figures. Thus under the operation of the scheme for eliciting private effort, by far the larger proportion,—in mere amount it may be almost said the whole,—of the education of Bengal has come to be provided by the people for themselves. At the same time it must be remembered that a small but highly important part of the educational system is in other than native hands, and that the most influential of all parts of it rests on a different basis from that of grants-in-aid.

419. Bengal: Efficiency of the Education provided by private Effort*—In regard to the efficiency of aided education, it may be noted that the Bengal Provincial Committee has not furnished information as to the results of examinations in the form that we desired. Their statement shows merely the number of candidates that actually appeared for examination and

the number that passed. It will be observed how much higher most of the percentages are in Bengal than in the Provinces where the proportion is given between the number passed and the number actually under instruction at the beginning of the year. In departmental colleges 39'8 per cent, of those that appeared for the B.A. examination were successful; in aided colleges 24 per cent. Of students of departmental colleges who appeared for the First Examination in Arts, 45'1 per cent, passed, and of the students of aided colleges 26'3 per cent. Of pupils who went up for the matriculation examination from departmental high schools, 58'3 per cent, passed, and of pupils of aided high schools 39'2 per cent. Departmental and aided middle schools show percentages in the middle school examination of 67-6 and 69-5 respectively. It would thus appear that in all the higher standards aided institutions, as tested by the examinations of 1881-82, are decidedly inferior to those managed by the Department, but that in regard to the lower grade of secondary instruction the two classes of institutions are practically equal. The number of departmental primary schools, and therefore the number of candidates that appear from them at the upper and lower primary examinations, is so small that no trustworthy inference can be drawn from the comparative success of aided and departmental institutions at these examinations.

420. Bengal: Summary.—It thus appears that in Bengal the system of aiding a.nrl developing private enterprise has been completely successful from the outset, so far as regards what may be termed the intermediate stages of education. In course of time the way has been found to bring the system to bear upon primary instruction, and it may be hoped that the difficulties which remain in effecting improvement in the vast field of indigenous education will yet be overcome. The system has had a success such as is yet unrivalled in any other Province, in leading the natives of the country to rely upon themselves for providing the means of education in schools under their own management. It has, however, had but a limited direct effect in either extending or improving collegiate instruction, though indirectly it has without doubt helped to stimulate the effort which finds expression in the unaided colleges under native management.

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421. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Private Effort in 1854.—

In the North-Western Provinces and Oudh there was a narrower basis for a successful scheme of aiding and thus increasing private effort than in any of the Provinces that have been passed in review. It is universally admitted that it is to education in English, or, at all events, to education after an English model, that such a scheme can, at least in the first place, be most readily and successfully applied. Of such education there had been comparatively little in the Province now to be considered. The absence of foreign trade and of large Government offices made English comparatively little known, and the direct educational agency of the State had done greatly less than in Bengal to awaken a desire for it. Thus there were few English Schools maintained by the people for themselves, such as had long been common in Calcutta. A school had, indeed, been founded so early as 1818 at Benares, in which the instruction given was largely in the English language and on the English model; and a few similar institutions came into existence elsewhere in succeeding years. But such schools were never numerous, and they were too much isolated to have much influence on the mind of the community anywhere. Missionaries no doubt had done something to inspire a desire for education. It is known that in 1851 about 90 mission schools with some 4,000 pupils were in existence, but these figures show that the educational activity of Missions was proportionately much less than in Madras, Bombay, or Bengal. It would have

been unreasonable to expect that the offer of aid would elicit private effort so easily or quickly as had been the case in Bengal.

422. North-Western Provinces: History of private Effort •—Nevertheless the attempt to elicit private effort was made, and was attended for a time with very considerable success. The first Code of rules was unacceptable to Missionaries, whose schools offered the most promising material for the new scheme* because it contained the provision that fees must be paid by literally all the scholars of an aided school. The mistake, however, was soon remedied. In a later Code, issued in 1858, as soon as the commotion caused by the Mutiny had subsided, ample, if not excessive, provision was made for the free admission of pupils unable to pay a fee, and 9 schools with 1,456 pupils came at once under the operation of the system of grants-in-aid. The amount of the grant thus given in 1858 was Rs. 17,000. By 1864 the number of aided institutions had risen to 72, and the amount of grants to Rs. 81,000, in the North-Western Provinces alone. In 1871-72 the number of aided institutions in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh together was 399 with 25,000 pupils, and the grant had risen to Rs. 2,55,000. In that year aided effort was providing a large part of the means of instruction, especially of a more advanced description. Of the 9 colleges that then existed, 5 were aided, as were also 203 out of the 501 schools classed as secondary. Of the entire number of 211,000 pupils, 24,700, or 11*7 per cent., were in schools maintained by aided private effort. From the year 1871-72 the amount of grant has steadily, though not rapidly, declined; and the results of private effort have diminished in a similar degree. The grants, including those to schools for Europeans and Eurasians, fell from Rs. 2,55,000 in 1871-72 to Rs. 2,34,000 in 1874-75, to Rs. 1,86,000 in 1877-78, to Rs. 1,81,000 in 1880-81, and to Rs. 1,78,000 in 1881-82.

423. North-Western Provinces: Present Amount of private Effort.—

On comparing the year 1881-82 with 1870-71, it appears that the number of aided colleges has fallen from 5 to 2, and of aided secondary schools from 203 to 66. Of the entire number of 223,700 pupils now at school, aided effort educates only 18,000, or 8 per cent., while of the pupils in the secondary stage of instruction only 29*1 per cent, attend aided schools as against 59*6 per cent, in 1870-71. There are, however, 157 matriculated students in the remaining aided English colleges,—a number known to be very much larger than attended the 5 aided colleges of 1870-71, though we have not succeeded in discovering the exact number of undergraduates attending aided colleges at the earlier date. These 157 students constitute 44*98 per cent, of the entire number attending college in the Province. On the whole, in spite of the advance at the collegiate stage, the falling off is conspicuous alike in the aid afforded to private effort and in the share which such effort takes in the general scheme of education. Such is the present position of aided enterprise in the Province; but, as in Madras and Bengal, the **unaided** institutions under regular inspection must be included if the whole result of private enterprise is to be shown* Unaided institutions are, however, in this Province extremely few and small, though it is important to observe that they include 3 colleges and 5 high schools. When the figures for unaided institutions are added to those for aided ones, it appears that in 1881-82 private effort was educating in all 5*7 Per of students in English colleges, 29*1 per cent, of the boys in the secondary, 5*4 per cent, of the boys in the primary stage of education, and 58 per cent, of the girls at school. It may be noted also that while the grants amounted to Rs. 1,45,000, the total outlay on the institutions that are the outcome of private effort, that is, aided and unaided together, was Rs. 3,86,000, or considerably less than three times the amount.

424. North-Western Provinces: Native private Effort—The people of the country have not as yet been led to do much in providing the means of education, except to pay a cess on the land revenue, which at first was taken with their consent. What little they at one time did in the way of independent effort appears to be steadily diminishing. The falling off in their efforts is considerably greater than in those of private bodies not composed of natives of the country and less affected by the measures of Government. There were 84 aided institutions under native managers in 1870-71, 75 in 1875-76, and only 35 in 1881-82. The grants drawn by them fell from Rs. 41,000 in 1870-71 to Rs. 29,500 in 1881-82. In one point, however, the contrast with Bengal is striking. Two aided colleges under native management have sprung up : one no doubt, *viz.*, the Canning College, in very exceptional circumstances; the other, the Muhammadan College at Aligarh, a typical example of what may be effected under the system of grants-in-aid when zeal and energy come forward to take advantage of it.

425. North-Western Provinces: Efficiency of the Education provided by private Effort.—In inquiring into the efficiency of the institutions that are the fruit of private effort, the mode of reckoning is employed which we regard as furnishing the nearest approximation to a trustworthy test. As regards collegiate education, the proportion of those who passed to the number at the beginning of the year on the roll of the class examined, was at the B.A. examination for departmental colleges 18*5 per cent., and for colleges under private management 27*2 per cent. At the First Examination in Arts the percentage was for departmental colleges 55*5 per cent., and for colleges under private management 47*8 per cent. In high schools, as tested by the matriculation examination, the percentages were for departmental schools 46*8, and for those under private management 40*7. At the middle school examination, departmental schools showed 41*6 per cent, of passes,, and those under private management only 20*9. At the upper and lower primary examinations, departmental schools stood at 46*3 and 48*7 per cent., and primary schools under private management at 53*2 and 45*6 per cent respectively. So far as the results of these examinations may be taken as a test, it would thus appear that the two classes of institutions are on a footing of practical equality except in regard to their middle schools. Middle schools under private management seem decidedly inferior, but a point has been raised regarding the middle school examination of the Province which must be mentioned in a subsequent section of this Chapter.

426. North-Western Provinces: Summary.—Thus in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh private effort brings to the education of the country a contribution that is fairly satisfactory in quality, but comparatively small in amount and not showing any sign of growth at present. The degree in which the system of grants-in-aid has hitherto fostered a spirit of reliance on local exertions or combination for local purposes is small and shows no signs of increasing, but rather the reverse. The whole system of evoking private effort must be pronounced to have had little success.

427. Punjab: Private Effort in 1854.—In 1854 education in the Punjab was almost exclusively oriental in character; and the Province had so recently passed under British rule that sufficient time had not elapsed for the springing up of any desire for acquaintance with the English language or with English thought. The indigenous schools were indeed more numerous than in the North-Western Provinces; but experience has shown that it is difficult to* bring such schools under the influence of a system of grants-in-aid until there has been some success in aiding and developing education of

a more western type. In the Punjab indeed, as elsewhere* Missionaries had been the pioneers of this type of education. It is known that there were in the Punjab in 1851 fourteen mission schools with 700 scholars; and these numbers had most probably been doubled by 1856, when the provisions of the Despatch of 1854 began to be put in force. These schools were in fact the only ones to which the system of aiding private effort could be easily applied.

428. Punjab: History of private Effort ,—In these circumstances a system of departmental schools was organised, and to them the attention of the Department has ever since been mainly given. It was determined, however, in 1856 that while about three lakhs of rupees a year should be spent on direct Government education, an annual sum of Es. 8,580 should be distributed as grants-in-aid. Except that a few mission schools were thus aided, and probably enabled slightly to extend their operations, no further action seems to have been taken for several years on the clauses of the Despatch that bear on grants-in-aid. But in 1863-64 the Local Government appointed a Committee comprising officers of the Department as well as representatives of those interested in non-departmental education, to suggest such measures as might be necessary to carry out fully the provisions of the Despatch. After protracted discussion, this Committee made proposals by which they believed that the system of aiding private effort might be made to play an important part in the extension of education in the Province. Their proposals were approved by the Lieutenant-Governor, but the rules based on them were negatived by the Government of India in 1865. We do not desire to express any judgment on the question whether the Committee's proposals were suitable or otherwise, nor have we sufficient materials before us for arriving at any judgment on the point. But it seems at least possible that if the views of those interested in the question and possessed of local knowledge had been allowed to prevail, some good result might have been attained. Consultations between the Department and those interested in aided education were going on almost at the same time in Madras, where also the system of grants-in-aid had been till then little better than a failure, and in consequence of those consultations modifications were made which adapted the administration of the system to local circumstances,—with results which we have described already. The history of aided education in the Punjab can scarcely be traced beyond this point, on account of the varying ways in which the annual reports have been drawn up. Schools have in some years been classed as aided such as were not usually so regarded elsewhere, and changes have been made in the mode of financial statement such as to render the comparison of one period with another difficult or impossible.

429. Punjab: Present Amount of private Effort—In 1881-82 out of a total expenditure of Es. 5,01,700 from Provincial revenues and Es. 5,93,700 from Local and Municipal Funds, or a total of Es. 10,95,400 from public funds, Es. 1,10,500 was spent on aiding private effort in the instruction of natives of the country, including Es. 21,000 to the Punjab University college. Thus a sum of Es. 89,500 is devoted to the encouragement of private effort in actual instruction; so that both absolutely and relatively the grants have risen greatly since 1856. The entire outlay on the institutions in receipt of aid was Es. 3,05,600, or less than three times the amount of the grant. It would, therefore, appear that little though the system of grants-in-aid has been developed in the Punjab and the North-Western Provinces* such grants as are given are on a more liberal scale in both Provinces than in Madras, Bombay, or Bengal. As regards the amount of educational work that is now done by private effort,

the only aided college on the same footing as aided colleges in other Provinces was not so far organised in 1881-82 as to appear in the returns. The Oriental College at Lahore stands in so peculiar a relation to the State that it is doubtful whether it should be classed as departmental, aided or unaided. Something may be said in favour of each of these views. Its Principal is an officer of the Department. On the other hand, it is managed by the Senate of the Punjab University—an official but not a departmental body. It also receives aid from public funds, but this aid comes not from the Department but from funds conferred on the University by Government. Its Principal contends that it should be reckoned among unaided institutions. On the whole we think it should be classed among aided colleges, but it should be noticed that it stands on an entirely different footing from all other institutions of that class. If the Oriental College be regarded as an aided institution under private managers, then private effort in 1881-82 was educating 122, or about 54 per cent., of the entire number of students at college. Of the 5,960 boys in the secondary stage of instruction, 986, or 16·5 per cent., were attending aided schools, and of 93,660 in the primary stage, 9,300, or 9·04 per cent., were in aided schools. Also of the 9,200 girls under instruction, 5,350, or 58 per cent., were in aided schools. There was no unaided institution under regular inspection.

430. Punjab: Native Private Effort.—In 1862 a movement in favour of female education was initiated by the Lieutenant-Governor, and in connection with it privately managed girls' schools were opened on a tolerably extensive scale. About 1,000 girls' schools were opened altogether, and about two-thirds of them were classed at the time as aided institutions; all of which, or very nearly all, were under native managers. It is not, however, clear that the whole number of schools thus reckoned at the time as "aided, ought to be regarded as the fruit of private effort. To some of them, at all events, the relations of the Department were closer than those of mere supervision and inspection, and a considerable number of the schools in question are now classed as Government schools. Be this as it may, the number of girls' schools under native managers that were strictly aided schools stood at 189 in 1870-71, but had fallen to 124 in 1875-76 and to 79 in 1881-82. These, however, included two training schools for mistresses, which have gone on without interruption since their origin, and which have done good work and received liberal encouragement. Such may be said to be the only way in which the system of grants-in-aid has as yet elicited native educational effort in this Province. There were in 1881-82 only two aided schools for boys under native managers. We are not altogether prepared to ascribe this absence of private effort to any want of enterprise on the part of the natives themselves.

431. Punjab: Efficiency of Education provided by private Effort.—

As regards the efficiency of aided education* the Provincial Committee have been unable, as in Bengal, to supply the returns of examinations in the form desired. We have therefore had to fall back on the method of comparing for departmental and aided institutions the number that underwent examination with the number that were successful in passing. There are no aided colleges whose results can be compared with those of the college under departmental management. At the matriculation examination 31·48 per cent, of the candidates appearing from aided high schools passed, as against 52·81 per cent, from departmental high schools. At the middle school examination 61·5 per cent, of the candidates sent up from aided middle schools and 73·53 per cent, of those from departmental middle schools were successful. At the upper and lower primary examinations, the proportion of passed to examined was in aided primary schools 70 and 71 per cent, respectively, as against 66 and

74'7 Per cen^- departmental primary schools. Here, as in Bengal, it will be observed how much, higher the various percentages are than those of the Provinces where the attempt is made to compare, not the number sent up for examination, but the number instructed with the number passed. It appears that at one of the four examinations the pupils from aided schools were found slightly superior, and at the other three considerably inferior to those from departmental schools.

432. Punjab - Summary*—Thus in the Punjab the policy of aiding or eliciting private effort has not yet had a fair trial. Upon the whole it has been applied only to mission schools. It has doubtless done something to increase both the number and the efficiency of such schools, but even in their case it may be doubted whether any great educational result has been attained that would not have been attained without it. It has not enabled any appreciable number of the people of the country to co-operate with the State in the work of education, and the amount which it has evoked from private sources of any kind is not only insignificant compared with Bengal or Madras, but somewhat less than in Bombay or the North-Western Provinces. Hence the system of grants-in-aid must here also be pronounced a failure.

433. Central Provinces: Private Effort in 1854.—In the Central Provinces the scheme for eliciting private effort had a less hopeful field than even in the Punjab. Prior to 1862, when the Department was first formed and the provisions of the Despatch of 1854 began to take effect, hardly anything had been done to awaken the desire for education on an English model. It is true that in Sagar so early as 1827, nine schools had been commenced by European and continued by native enterprise. These schools were liberally aided by the State, and even in 1833 contained 600 pupils. Under a Local Committee they had a varied but on the whole a prosperous history down to 1862. In 1835, similar schools were opened at Hoshangabad and Jabalpur, but they met with less success. The former was closed in a few TOa^{f^6Saiter was maintained until its Committee transferred it in 1851 tj^missiof^ by which it has since then been carried on. Elsewhere also (^sloni li^d^ODjeijme-thing for education. Exact information is not procurab^^jit it sein^^pfcable that when the educational system was organised in or12 mission schools with about 600 pupils, chiefly in or near Nagpur and Jabalpur. Upon the receipt of the Despatch of 1854, the State had made some provision for education in those Districts of the Province which then formed part of the North-Western Provinces. Little, however, had been effected, and that little had not had time to influence the community. The indigenous schools were probably weaker than in any other part of India; and in the Southern and Eastern Districts of the Province they were hardly known outside the larger towns. Those that existed even in the Northern and Western Districts are said to have been ephemeral. Out of 231 returned in 1846, 103 were of less than one year's standing and 155 of less than two years'. There seems to have been no class of hereditary teachers such as is found in all other parts of India; and hardly an appreciable fraction of the community desired any kind of education. In none of the Provinces was the population so illiterate, and in none was there less reason to expect that private enterprise would prove an efficient-auxiliary to the educational efforts of the State.

434. Central Provinces: History of private Effort.—Nevertheless, to call forth private effort was from the outset one of the main objects of the newly-formed Department. Crant-in-aid rules were at once formulated and published; grants were given on a liberal scale to the few schools that were

ready to receive them; scholarships were established, tenable at all schools, whether departmental or aided; and no schools were founded by the Department at any place where there was a reasonable hope that private effort would supply the means of education. Even in places where it was judged necessary for the Department to establish institutions of its own, School Committees were appointed with some powers of control in subsidiary matters. These Committees, it was hoped, would gradually take such an interest in the schools and gain so much experience in educational affairs, that in course of time the education of the village or District might be safely left to the inhabitants themselves with only supervision and aid from the Department. From the outset an attempt was made, and on the whole a successful attempt, to include the indigenous schools in the general system. The plan of payment by results on its present footing, which was first applied to the indigenous schools of Madras in 1868 and to those of Bengal in 1872, and which has little more than begun or not even yet begun to be applied in other Provinces, was already in operation in the Central Provinces in 1863. By 1870-71 there were 432 aided schools at work with 22,300 pupils, receiving grants amounting to Rs. 39,000 per annum. By 1875-76 the number of schools had increased to 609. In the succeeding years there was a considerable falling off, which illustrates one of the dangers incident to reliance upon private effort, and which may be taken as an instructive warning against pushing on a system of aided schools before the desire for education has grown sufficiently strong. The number of aided institutions sank from 432 in 1870-71 to 357 in 1881-82. The falling off was confined to the two districts of Bhandara and Sambalpur. In the former, 53 schools had been closed in the course of two years* and in the latter, 288 in a single year. The cause was the same in both cases. Zealous officials had pushed on the opening of aided schools in advance of popular desire, and when these officials left the District a collapse followed. The figures show that in the remaining 16 Districts of the Province, where there had been less of artificial stimulus, considerable and steady progress has been made. Even in the two Districts in question, some recovery soon took place, for instance, when the 288 schools were closed in Sambalpur, only 38 remained, but in two years they had again risen to 69. It should also be observed that it was in vernacular schools that such fluctuation took place. The number of aided English schools has slowly but steadily increased from 14 in 1870-71 to 19 in 1875-76, and to 20 in 1881-82.

435. Central Provinces: Present Amount of private Effort.—The extent of aided education in 1881-82 may next be shown. Out of a total expenditure of Rs. 3,50,800 from Provincial revenues, and Rs. 1,65,600 from Local and Municipal Funds, or Rs. 5,16,400 from all public sources, a sum of Rs. 4,4,800 was spent on grants-in-aid. The total outlay on the education that sprang from private effort, was Rs. 91,800, or little more than double the amount received from public funds. Grants are thus given on a scale decidedly more liberal than in any of the Provinces hitherto considered,—doubtless an indispensable condition, if private effort is to be evoked at all. Where the desire for education is even yet so feeble. Thus encouraged, private effort already takes an important part in the supply of the means of education. It is only, indeed, since the date of the returns supplied to the Commission that the first aided college has sprung up; but in 1881-82, of the 2,770 boys in the secondary stage of instruction 670, or 24 per cent., and of 74,500 boys in the primary stage, 21,400, or 28'7 per cent., were in privately managed schools. Also of the 3,200 girls at school, 514, or 16 per cent., were in aided schools. The unaided schools under regular inspection are so few that their separate enumeration is unnecessary, and it is believed that the number of indigenous schools still beyond the sphere of departmental aid and inspection is extremely small. The Provincial Committee

lament that so large a proportion of education should still be in the hands of the Department; but it may be questioned whether the progress made has not been as great as could reasonably be looked for, considering the depths of ignorance from which the Province started. At all events, a good foundation has been laid for the future development of private effort.

436. Central Provinces: Native private Effort.—¹Of the private effort thus noticed, a large proportion, especially in regard to primary instruction, has been put forth by the natives of the country; and except in the two Districts above referred to, their share in it has been steadily increasing. Of the 357 aided institutions in 1881-82, 321 were under native managers, and out of 336 vernacular schools, all but 27 were under native managers. In the higher stages of education, the people have not yet done so much for themselves; for of the 12 English schools for boys, 8 are under other than native managers. Still the 4 schools of this class conducted by natives stand high among the institutions of the Province and show every sign of stability and extended usefulness*

437. Central Provinces: Efficiency of Education provided by private Effort .—As compared with departmental institutions, aided institutions seem to be somewhat less efficient than in any other Province except Bengal, though the different ways in which the examination results of the two Provinces have been drawn up prevent us from placing any great reliance on the comparison between them. The only college that has yet sent up students for examination being in the hands of the Department, no comparison at the collegiate stage is possible. Beckoned in the way which we consider most indicative of the truth, the percentages of success are for departmental high schools 50, and for aided 31; for departmental middle schools 36, and for aided 30. The upper and lower primary examinations are in this Province applied to girls' schools as well as boys', and are so applied as to afford a reasonably fair test of both departmental and aided schools. In the upper primary examination, the ratio of successful candidates to the number on the roll of the class examined at the beginning of the year was in departmental schools for boys 29 per cent., and in aided schools for boys only 12*8 per cent. In the same examination the percentage for departmental girls' schools was 30*7 and for aided girls schools 33*3» In the Lower Primary School examination, the percentage of successful candidates was in departmental schools for boys 41*4, and in aided schools for boys 38*6. In the same examination the percentage for departmental girls' schools was 29*9, and for aided girls' schools 43*6. In other words, at all the examinations the boys in departmental schools made a decidedly, and in one of the examinations a greatly, better appearance than those in aided schools. In aided schools for girls, on the other hand, the instruction seems to be decidedly more efficient than in schools managed by the Department.

438. Central Provinces: Summary.—In taking a general survey of educational work in the Central Provinces, we should consider the large influence which has been exerted by officials in procuring the establishment of primary schools under private as well as under departmental management. Some of our witnesses have described that influence as amounting to official pressure, which not only varies with the disposition of the District Officer but also involves the danger of reaction when the influence is withdrawn. There is no doubt some truth in these remarks, and we recognise the danger to which they point. But on the other hand we must bear in mind the state in which the Department found the Province, the weakness of the indigenous schools, and the almost entire absence of any material on which the grant-in-aid system could unme-

diately work. On the whole, the results have certainly been beneficial, and the action taken has at any rate paved the way for much greater development of private enterprise on a sound and healthy basis. In higher education, private effort has been liberally encouraged with results satisfactory on the whole, though it appears that some improvement is desirable in the quality of the education which it provides.

439. Assam—It is unnecessary to review in detail the history or condition of aided education in the minor Provinces of Assam, Coorg, and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts. In Assam, which up to 1874 was part of Bengal, the general condition of private enterprise in education is the same as in that Province. Of the entire number of 47,000 scholars in 1881-82, 43,000, or 91 "5 per cent., were in schools, mostly aided, that were the result of private effort; and of the entire expenditure of Us. 1,94,000 from public funds, Rs. 83,000 was spent on grants-in-aid, It s. 51,000 of this being from local rates and cesses. The entire expenditure on privately managed schools was Us. 1,45,400, or considerably less than double the amount drawn by them from public funds. It thus appears that grants are given in Assam more liberally than in any other Province, and considering the difficulties of education in a Province so sparsely peopled, such liberality is no more than circumstances call for. As in Bengal, elementary education is almost entirely managed by the people. There are 1,189 aided and 84 unaided primary schools for boys, while only 7 are directly maintained by Government ; and of the .1,314 aided institutions of all kinds, 1,133 are under native managers, and only 181 under managers who are not natives. There is no college in Assam, but the Province resembles Bengal in this other particular that the highest kind of education existing in it has as yet been provided only to a very limited extent by aided native effort. Only 2 high schools (one aided and one unaided) are under private management, against 9 in the hands of the Department.

440. Coorg.—In Coorg there is practically nothing to record concerning private effort. Grant-in-aid rules have been published, but, from whatever cause, hardly any advantage has been taken of them. Of the 63 schools but 3 are aided institutions. These are primary schools and educate* only 91 pupils, or less than 3 per cent., of the whole number.

441. The Haidarabad Assigned Districts.—The state of aided education in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts is, speaking generally, of a similar character to that in Bombay, with which, in all that bears on education, the Province is intimately connected. In 1881 -82, out of a total outlay of Bs. 3,23,000 from public funds, only Rs. 3,790 was devoted to grants-in-aid; although of the 36,000 pupils, 6,900, or about 19 per cent., were in schools maintained by private managers, if those which are aided and those which are unaided but under regular inspection are classed together. The privately managed schools are exclusively for primary instruction, and almost exclusively indigenous in their origin. The chief points bearing on private **effort** in which the Province differs from Bombay are (1) the entire absence of aided institutions of a higher kind; (2) the still smaller proportion of public funds that is spent on aided education, being only ra per cent., as against 4-4 per cent, in Bombay; and (3) the much larger extent to -which indigenous schools have been brought into connection with the Department. While only 73 out of 4,012 indigenous schools are aided in Bombay, in the Haidarabad Assign^ Districts all, or nearly all, are either aided or regularly inspected.

442. General Financial Result—Perhaps nothing .that has come to our notice in this historical review is more instructive than , the varying extent to

which the expenditure on education in the different Provinces is supplied from public funds and from private sources respectively. In public funds we include not only provincial grants derived from the whole tax-paying community, but also those local contributions which are paid from local rates or municipal revenues. In proportion as these local contributions are taken under the operation of law from, local resources, they tend, as has been shown above, to diminish the means available for spontaneous effort. But as the application of local funds is mainly and of municipal funds is partially determined by departmental influence, we have throughout this Report treated both these funds as public. The comparison which we wish to institute will be evident from the following statement:—

PROVINCE.	Expenditure on education from public funds in 1881-82.	Expenditure on education from all sources in 1881-82.	Percentage of column 2 to column 3.
1	2	3	4
	Es.	Bs.	
Madras	13,97,448	29,94,707	46'66
Bombay	17,71,860*	23*69,916f	74-76
Bengal		55. 59,295	41*33
North-Western Provinces and Oudh. .	15,06,882	18*55,57^	81'20
Punjab	10,95,321	14,42,556	75*92
Central Provinces .	5*16,517	6,35,824	81-23
Assam	1 * 91,203	0 i *548,64*40	
Coorg	20,293	22,737	8925
Hyderabad Assigned Districts	3*23,441	3,51,296	9207

* Exclusive of contributions from Native States,
f Exclusive of expenditure on the schools of Native States. .

It thus appears that in Madras, where for many years private effort was liberally encouraged, public funds have to bear only 46*66 per cent, of the whole sum available for public instruction, and that in Bengal, where the development of the grant-in-aid system has been continuous on the whole, public funds provide only 41*33 per cent, of the whole amount spent on providing the various agencies of education. We do not imply that in either Province all has been done that might have been done to elicit private effort. In the former of the two, we have seen already, and shall see more fully in the sequel, that the development of such effort has in some respects been seriously checked. Still, the result of aided effort in both Provinces, summarised in these percentages, suffices to show at how small an expenditure of State resources great results may in favourable circumstances be attained. The Table, at the same time, shows how much greater a proportion of the whole sum spent on instruction is borne by public funds in those Provinces in which departmental agency has been strongly and continuously preferred.

443. Summary.—'Our review appears to be sufficient to show that with free scope and cordial encouragement, private effort in education may everywhere produce beneficial and satisfactory results. In almost every Province it has done enough, in point of both quantity and quality, to prove its vitality and its capacity for constantly increasing usefulness. Even where least successful, the plan of aiding private effort to establish institutions for secondary and even higher instruction has by no means proved a failure. Still private effort has hitherto had important disadvantages almost everywhere to contend against. The departmental system was in most cases first in the field ; and even where private enterprise has been most freely encouraged, departmental institutions,

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which were often originally established at head-quarter stations or other large and populous centres, have continued to occupy the most favourable ground and have left to private enterprise the task of cultivating a poorer soil. We do not overlook the obligation imposed on the Department by the Despatch of 1854 of opening schools and colleges of its own, whether as models or as the only means available at first of providing many localities with the facilities they required for advanced instruction; and we are sensible of the great advantages which the people of India have derived from such departmental institutions. Still it is plain that private effort has not yet been elicited on such a scale as to take the position in the general scheme of education which was contemplated in the Despatch of 1854. Nor in the circumstances is this surprising. Departmental institutions have absorbed a large part of admittedly insufficient funds, so that means have not been available for developing private enterprise to the full. Such enterprise has probably been checked in many cases by the manifest impossibility of its competing successfully with institutions backed by the resources of the State ; and in some Provinces the steady development of the departmental system has undoubtedly fostered in the native community a disposition to rely more and more on Government for the whole provision of the means of advanced instruction. In short, experience has shown that private effort cannot attain the development or produce the results anticipated in the Despatch of 1854, unless the action of Government is such as to lead the community at large to feel that most departmental institutions are chiefly intended to supply a temporary want, and that the people must themselves more largely provide the means of advanced instruction. This is no argument for the hasty or premature reduction of the departmental system, but only for cautious yet steadily progressive action in the direction of its withdrawal,-a subject, however, which is so important and yet so delicate that we propose to devote a section of the present Chapter to its further consideration.

Section 3.-General View of the Education provided by private Effort in 1881-82, and of the Aid afforded it.

444. Introductory.-Having traced the history of private effort in each of the Provinces up to the present time, we shall now give a general view of the whole educational work being done by such effort, and of the extent to which it is aided by the State. We shall also show how far that aid has been continued or increased since the financial changes introduced in 1870-71, of which an account will be given in Chapter XII. These facts can best be shown in a tabular form. At this point accordingly we introduce four Tables prepared with the view of bringing together the main facts bearing on the whole scheme of grants-in-aid. Table I shows the attendance at institutions under private managers, aided and unaided, that are connected with the Department; while Table II shows how this attendance is distributed between the various classes of institutions for general education, viz., colleges, secondary schools, primary schools and Normal schools. Table III shows the whole expenditure under the rules for grants-in-aid in each Province, and compares it with expenditure of the same kind in 1870-71. Table IV shows the amount of aid given in 1870-71 and 1881-82 respectively to each class of privately managed institutions, viz., to colleges, secondary schools, primary schools, and Normal schools.

After thus summarising the chief facts bearing on private effort, so far as it is brought into connection with the general system of education, we shall note the most important inferences that may be drawn there from.

TABLE I.—Return of Attendance in aided and unaided Institutions on March 3/st, 1882.

PROVINCES.	NUMBER OF AIDED INSTITUTIONS.*		NUMBER OF UNAIDED INSTITUTIONS UNDER REGULAR INSPECTION†		NUMBER OF SCHOLARS IN AIDED INSTITUTIONS UNDER REGULAR INSPECTION‡		PERCENTAGE OF SCHOLARS IN AIDED INSTITUTIONS TO TOTAL NUMBER IN ALL INSTITUTIONS IN THE DEPARTMENT IN 1882.		PERCENTAGE OF SCHOLARS IN UNAIDED INSTITUTIONS TO TOTAL NUMBER IN ALL INSTITUTIONS CONNECTED WITH THE DEPARTMENT IN 1882.		PERCENTAGE OF SCHOLARS IN AIDED INSTITUTIONS IN 1871 TO TOTAL NUMBER IN ALL INSTITUTIONS CONNECTED WITH THE DEPARTMENT IN THAT YEAR.		REMARKS.		
	For Boys.	For Girls.	For Boys.	For Girls.	In Boys' Schools.	In Girls' Schools.	In Boys' Schools.	In Girls' Schools.	In Boys' Schools.	In Girls' Schools.	In Boys' Schools.	In Girls' Schools.			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Madras.....	7^439	263	5^904	242	206,355	7^954	107*793	6,788	56*28	57*16	2939	32*46	75*24	99-90	
Bombay.....	192	59	15	3	14,709	4^893	1,109	139	5^65	29-83	43	84	4*3^0	22*86	
Bengal .	47^14	941	4*585	71	904,610	16,045	88,715	2,200	8834	86*49	866	11*85	82*88	92*01	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	178	138	37	10	127	4*954	987	242	6*10	5577	45	2*72	11^52	34*16	
Punjab .	152	166	114	...	10,405	5^496	10*39	58*76	2174	73*25	
Central Provinces	369	13	85	1	18,943	514	3,188	...	24*29	15^93	4*09	*55	28*15	*07	
Assam .	1,246	67	94	4	38,707	1*132	3*024	77	84-99	93^63	6*64	6*37	The figures for 1870-71 for Assam are included in those for Bengal.		
Coorg	2	1	65	26	2-03	100	...	=	530	60-97	
Haidrabad Assigned Districts	205	4	207	...	4^3	99	2,672	...	11^59	2690	7*53	
TOTAL FOR INDIA	57,597	11,162	10,927	331	1,211,034	45,203	207,488	9*464	56*90	57^16	974	11*99	36-80	5^59	

* Including training colleges and other attached special schools, but excluding unattached professional and technical institutions and schools and colleges for Europeans and Eurasians.
 † Unattached professional and technical institutions, and schools and colleges for Europeans and Eurasians are here excluded.
 ‡ Unaided schools not under the inspection of the Department, and inspected schools in the Native States of the Bombay Presidency were excluded, excluding British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education, excluding 1 aided middle school in Ajmir with 220 pupils.

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445. Attendance in aided and unaided Institutions.—The foregoing Table includes only those unaided institutions which are shown in the departmental returns, and therefore takes no account of indigenous or other schools outside the organised system. It also excludes nearly all the unaided institutions under regular inspection in Bombay, since these last are not the result of private effort. Except the few on whose attendance the percentages here shown are based, the unaided institutions in Bombay are, as has been previously explained, the schools of Native States; and being managed by the Department, though unaided by Government, they should be regarded as departmental institutions. In the other Provinces the unaided institutions included in our returns are under private management; and the existence of many, the probable improvement of all, may be held to be an indirect result of the policy initiated in 1854. Owing mainly to the different degrees in which departmental education and education under Municipal and Local Boards have been developed in the different Provinces since 1870-71, the proportion of the whole provision for education that is furnished by purely private effort varies greatly in different parts of India at the two dates selected for comparison. It is, however, noteworthy that, taking India as a whole, such private effort supplies a much larger proportion of education connected with the Department than it did eleven years ago. Of the entire number of boys at school in 1881-82, 56*90 per cent, were in aided institutions, as against 36*80 per cent, in 1871; and of the entire number of girls at school in 1882, there were 57*16 per cent., as against 56*59 per cent, in 1871. If to these percentages be added those for unaided institutions maintained by unofficial agency, it appears that 66*64 per cent, of the boys and 69*15 per cent, of the girls who are being educated in India in connection with the State attend institutions which are the result of private effort. If boys and girls are taken together, 66*74 per cent, of the entire number of pupils shown in the returns of the Department are being educated in institutions under private management; while in 1870-71 the proportion of pupils so educated was 43*31. In other words, the proportion of pupils taught in departmental schools has fallen from 56*69 per cent, to 33*26 per cent. In the above figures are not included upwards of a million pupils, mainly in indigenous schools, estimated for 1870-71, or some 360,000 returned for 1881-82 as being in schools outside the State system. It thus appears that the proportionate increase in the amount of private effort connected with the Department has been mainly caused by the incorporation of an immense number of indigenous schools brought upon the aided list since 1870-71; so that the increased amount of private educational effort connected with the Department does not show that there has been an increased amount of such effort at those higher stages at which the Despatches anticipated that the encouragement of private enterprise would produce the greatest results in extending the means of education. This will appear more fully in the sequel.

TABLE II.—Detailed return of attendance in each Class of Aided Institutions on March 31st, 1882.

PROVINCES.	Class of Institutions.	Number of Institutions.*			Number of Scholars.			Percentage of scholars in Aided institutions of each class to the Total number of scholars in Departmental, Aided, and Inspected Institutions of the same class in the year 1882.			Percentage, as in previous column, for 1871.		
		For Boys.	For Girls.	Total.	In Boys' Schools.	In Girls' Schools.	Total.	In Boys' Schools.	In Girls' Schools.	Total.	In Boys' Schools.	In Girls' Schools.	Total.
MADRAS.	Arts Colleges, English.	11	...	XX	803	...	803	48*11	...	48*IX	31*10	...	31*10
	Secondary schools	252§	19§	271§	13,915§	187§	14,092§	40*36§	53*8*§	79*25	100*	...	84**5
	Primary schools	7,173	241	7,414	192,480	11,660	204,140	5*56	57*25	56*60	74*77	100*	75**4
	Normal schools .	3	3	6	157	137	294	19*65	87*26	38*75	52*28	89*23	57*5*
	TOTAL	7,439	*63	7,70*	206,355	11,954	218,309						
Bombay I A	Arts Colleges, English.	2	...	2	139	...	139	30*88	M.	30*88	15*82	...	*5*8*
	Secondary schools	44§	9§	53§	8,006§	55§	8,061§	29*86§	100*§	3*XX§	33*04	100'	34*0i
	Primary schools .	146	50	196	9,5<54	4,338	13,900*	394	27*50	5*38	1*19	120*61	Ut
	Normal schools .	19*	59	*5*	*4,709	4,893	9,602						
	TOTAL	19*	59	*5*	*4,709	4,893	9,602						
N.-W. PROVINCES AND OUDH.	Arts Colleges, English.	5	...	5	895	...	895	32*76	...	3*76	38*67	...	28<7
	Secondary schools	1,354	181	1,535	83,300	4,040	87,340	60*29	61*751	60*30	75*25	...	75**5
	Primary schools .	46,453	921	47,374	820,080	15,355	835,435	93*09	87*98	92*99	97*45	92*27	96-89
	Normal schools .	4	2	6	335	141	476	33*36	100*	35*88	21*13	57*14	22*16
	TOTAL	47,814	941	48,755	904,600	16,048	920,648						
N.-W. PROVINCES AND OUDH.	Arts Colleges (English)	3	...	2	157	...	157	44*98	...	44*98	53*93	...	53*93
	Arts Colleges (Oriental)	2	...	2	130	...	130	23*34	...	3*34	100*	...	100*
	Secondary schools.	<53§	3§	66§	2,188§	68§	2,256§	28*59§	100*§	*9*xi§	60*31	100'	6x'2fi
	Primary schools .	111	132	243	10,322	4,797	15,119	4*99	54*97	7*04	1*55	29*24	3*34
	Normal schools	3	3	...	89	89	...	100*	**53	703	57*00	*5*79
PUNJAB .	Arts College, Oriental.	1	...	1	122	...	122	100*	...	100*
	Secondary schools .	34§	1§	35§	8,868§	8§	8,876§	x6'54§	100*§	r6*68§	36'51	...	36*51
	Primary schools .	116	162	278	9,266	5,350	14,616	9*89	58*10	14*20	18*04	72*86	27*26
	Normal schools .	1	3	4	3*	138 ^	X69	iris	100*	40*62	11*91	100*	48*88
	TOTAL	*5*	166	3x8	10,405	5*496	15,901*						
CENTRAL PROVINCES, I	Secondary schools	14§	...	x4§	671§	...	671§	24*20§	...	*4*0§	20*83	...	ao*88
	Primary schools .	38§	13	51§	18,272	514	18,786	24*51	16*02	24*16	28*80	*65	27*21
	TOTAL	52	*3	55	18,943	514	19,457						
Assam .	Secondary schools	54t	...	54*	4,085t	...	4,085t	49*95§	...	49*95§	The figures for 1870-7* for Assam are included in those of Bengal-		
	Primary schools .	1,189	67	1,256	34,5t	1,13a	35,643	93*34	93*63	93*35			
	Normal schools .	3	...	3	III	...	III	33*53	...	33*53			
	TOTAL	[1,246	67	*3*3	38,707	1,13*	39,839						
COOSA .	Primary schools .	2	1	3	65	26	91	2*13	100*	2*96	5*53	60*97	7*00
	Primary schools .	205	4	*9	4,113	99	4,212	H*99	26*90	12*12
TOTAL	Arts Colleges (English)	20	...	30	*994	...	*994	36*93	...	36*93	*7*73	...	*7*73
	Arts Colleges (Oriental)	3	...	3	aS*	...	aS*	13*95	...	13*95	x00*	...	x00*
	Secondary Schools	**1,8x3	5°	1,863	109,381	**437	110,818	53*8	69*39	53*34	6**93	100.	64**4
	Primary Schools .	55*75*	*S9*	57,341	1,098,573	43^7*	1,141,644	57*48	56*66	57*45	28*71	4997	3P*aa
	Normal Schools .	xx	xx	zz	634	4P5	634	*.03*	x8'75	7864-	2664	18*32	65*49
TOTAL	57,597	1,652	59,249	1,231,034	48,113	1,279,147							

* Excluding unattached professional and technical institutions, and schools and colleges for Europeans and Eurasian*
t Excluding the schools of Native States in the Bombay Presidency.
X Inclusive of attached Primary schools.
§ Exclusive of attached Primary schools.
l Exclusive of British Burma and of all Native States that administer their own system of education*
5 Including 3 matriculated students reading for the P. A. examination.
** Excluding 1 middle school in Ajmer with 220 pupils.

446. Attendance in each Class of aided Institutions.—It is much to be regretted that so many disturbing influences affect the figures for 1870-71, as compared with those for 1881-82, that it is scarcely possible to turn to any practical account the comparison which has been instituted between the two years. For example, no statistics can be supplied for Assam and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts in 1870-71. The returns for Assam in that year are included in those for Bengal, and their separation in 1881-82 renders it impossible accurately to compare the figures for the latter Province at the two periods. Again, in most Provinces there have been great changes of classification. Many schools regarded in 1870-71 as secondary are now classed as primary, and some then regarded as primary are now classed as secondary. Moreover, the practice prevailing in Bengal and Assam, of including the pupils belonging to the attached primary departments in the returns of secondary schools, introduces great risk of confusion in this as in many other of our Tables. Once more, the comparison between the two years is rendered still further uncertain by the defective statistics for unaided schools included in the organised system in 1870-71. The unaided institutions of this class were in that year almost entirely secondary schools; and though in most Provinces there were then but few such schools, yet in Bengal their number was already so considerable as to interfere perceptibly with the accuracy of the percentages in column 6 of Table II, as also with those in columns 14 and 15 of Table I. It is only at the secondary stage of instruction that the impossibility of ascertaining their number gives rise to any risk of important error. It seems desirable to state what can be gathered from the figures now procurable for 1870-71, by way of comparing the amount of aided private effort at the two periods. It is clear that the proportion of the entire number of college students attending aided colleges has considerably increased in every Province where aided colleges exist at all. Besides this, there are 9 unaided colleges with over 700 students, or about one-eighth of the whole number in India; and consequently the proportion of students attending departmental colleges has considerably decreased. It is also clear that the proportion of primary instruction carried on by aided private effort has increased in some Provinces and fallen off in others, but has about doubled for India as a whole; though this fact, as indicated in the last paragraph, is mainly due to the vast number of indigenous schools incorporated into the State system of some Provinces, notably of Bengal. The proportion of Normal school students being educated by aided private effort was much the same at the two selected dates. With regard to secondary education, the elements of uncertainty that enter into the comparison are so numerous that it is desirable to test and supplement this Table by referring to Tables I and II in Chapter V. From these Tables it would appear that the number of departmental secondary schools in all Provinces had risen from 780 in 1870-71 to 1,365 in 1881-82, while the number of aided secondary schools had fallen from 2,251 in 1870-71 to 1,863 in 1881-82. As explained, however, in Chapter V, the apparent increase in the number of departmental schools is much greater than the real increase, on account of the great defects in the information for 1870-71 which it is now possible to obtain for the North-Western Provinces. The falling off in that Province of aided private effort in secondary education is undoubtedly great; but the apparent increase in the number of departmental institutions is the result almost entirely of a change in the mode of classification. Thus all that can be considered certain is that the means of secondary education were more largely supplied by the Department (including as we do in that term the agency of Local and Municipal bodies), at the end than at the beginning of the period under review; but upon the exact proportion in which the Table shows that departmental agency had thus taken the

place of private agency, but little reliance can be placed. Also it is important to notice that this substitution of departmental for private agency has not taken place in every Province. From Tables I and II in Chapter V, it is clear that in Bengal (when allowance is made for the separation of Assam), in the Central Provinces, and in Bombay, aided private and departmental agency provide virtually the same proportion of the means of secondary education as they did eleven years ago; indeed, that any small change that has taken place is rather in the direction of the increased development of private effort. In the Punjab, however, to a comparatively small extent, and in Madras and the North-Western Provinces to a very considerable extent, departmental agency has increased, while purely private agency has diminished.

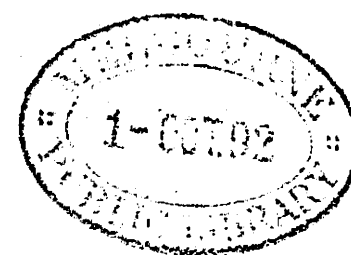


Table III.—Return of Expenditure (a) under the Grant-in-aid Rules in the official year 1881-82,

Source.	Building grants and other special non-recurring grants.	OEDIR AET Gr BAWIS-INVAIN* TO IIRSI TIRRIOK'S FOR			Total of columns 2 and 5.	DISTRIBUTION or EXPENDITURE IN COHITJMT 6.		Proportion of total grants (column 6) to total expenditure on education J from public funds.	Proportion of grants to total expenditure in Aided Institutions.	REMARKS.
		Boys.	Girls.	Total of columns 3 and 4.		From Provincial Funds.f	From Local and Municipal Funds.f			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
MAMAS X	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft			
1870-71	29,097	3,07,836	27,558	3,35,394	3,64,491	3,64,491	...	39*06	37**4	
(1881-82)	6,418	4,55,271	40,522	4,95,793	5,02,*11	2,06,790	3,95,421	30*76	34*8	
BOUBAT .%	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft			
1870-71	61,308	30,069	4,169	34,a38	95,546	95,546	...	5*6	55*736	b The total expenditure on Aided Schools in 1870-71 has not been completely returned by the school managers.
(1881-82)	15,544	55,919	15,180	71,099	86,643	83,492	3,151	4*37	29*30	
BEH&AL .-S	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft			
1870-71	...	4,83,884	45,094	5**8,978	51*8,978	5,28,978	...	28-35	38*85	
(1881-82)	...	8,05,357	58,502	8,63,869	8,63,869	8,37,201	26,668	32*23	27*58	
Noeth-Wbst- (EE IT PEOTIir- CES & Oudh. (jgsj-gz	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft			
1870-71	8,859	2,16,562	31,855	2,48,417	a,57,776	2,38,511	18,765	17*73	48*44	
(1881-82)	...	1,19,945	22,522	1,42,467	1,42,467	1,31,042	n,425	9*03	38*36	
PUSJA3 . <	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft			
1870-71	...	78,582	36,916	1,15,498	1,15,498	J,15,498	...	14*50	45*92	
(1881-82)	1,340	89,400	37,391	x,26,691	*,*8,031	1,08,986	*9,045	10*40	41*94	
CETCBAL PBO-) vncra. j	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft			
1870-71	2,000	36,978	76	37,1,54	39,054	36,401	2,653	9*42	37*68	
(1881-82)	152	38,401	1,987	40,388	40,540	35,476	5,064	7*66	44*16	
ASSAM . . □ <	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft			
1870-71	...	The figures for Assam for 1870-71 are included in those of Bengl.	
(1881-82)	...	80,380	3,341	83,621	82,621	31,127	51,494	40*28	56*80	
COOBG . <	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft			
1870-71	...	192	120	312	312	312	...	2*07	25*67	
(1881-82)	**B	192	120	312	312	312	...	i*53	56*41	
HAIDAE A B A B ^1870-71 AS B I & 2TBD< DISTRICTS. (ss...s3	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft			
1870-71	...	3,328	462	3,790	3,790	3,400	390	117	21*93	
(1881-82)	
Total Joej IIRI>ia.§ 1	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft			
1870-71	
(1881-82)	23,454	6,48,103	1,78,927	18,27,030	18,50,484	13,79,737	4,12,658	18*70	41*19	

a Expenditure from Public Funds on open scholarships and prizes is excluded from the grants entered in this table.
 * Grant made from trust and endowment funds are excluded.
 t Excluding expenditure incurred in the year 1881-82 on schools and colleges for Europeans and Eurasians.
 % Including expenditure on all professional and technical institutions and on schools and colleges for Europeans and Eurasians*
 | Excluding British, Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.
 | Excluding a grant of £ 3,043 to an aided middle school in Ajmir.

447. Expenditure under the Grant-in-aid Rules—In perusing both this Table and the next, some caution is required. In stating the grants for 1870-71, we have given the most trustworthy figures now attainable; but the figures for that year are far from perfectly correct, and chiefly for the following reason. It is not possible to eliminate for all Provinces the amount spent in 1870-71 in aiding schools for Europeans and Eurasians. If this amount could be excluded, as has been done in stating the grants for 1881-82, it would lessen the amount for the earlier year, and therefore somewhat lessen the proportion of public funds stated in column 9 to have been devoted in 1870-71 to the encouragement of private effort. In this Table also, as in Table II, the figures for Bengal are disturbed by the separation of Assam in 1874* and another element of disturbance is found in the exclusion of the cost of Government buildings from the total expenditure from public funds in 1870-71, this cost having been met at that time from other than educational funds. The effect of this unavoidable omission is to show the proportionate increase in expenditure on grants-in-aid between 1870-71 and 1881-82 (column 9) at less than its actual rate. In the case of Bombay, a difficulty arises from the fact that, in the year 1870-71, aided institutions did not furnish a complete statement of their total expenditure. This makes it appear that the grant drawn from the State by these institutions in 1870-71 amounted to more than half the gross outlay in maintaining them; which is known to have been far from the actual fact. As the ascertained expense of aided institutions in Bombay has of course to be included in reckoning the proportion of grants to total expenditure in aided institutions for the whole of India in 1870-71, a slight inaccuracy has been caused in the calculation of this last detail. This is, however, an inaccuracy so small as to have little bearing on any question that we may afterwards discuss.

Table IV.—Detailed Return of Expenditure under the Grant-in-aid

PROVINCES.	CLASS OF INSTITUTIONS.	AMOUNTS PAID IN THE YEAR ENDING MARCH 31ST		DISTRIBUTION OF EXPENDITURE IN 1870-71 FKOK		DISTRIBUTION OF EXPENDITURE* IN 1881-82 BEOM	
		1870-71.	1881-83.*	Provincial Revenues.	Other Public Funds.	Provincial Revenues.	Other Public Funds.
		3	4	5	6	7	8
		R	Ji	R	A	*	*
HABEAS	Collegiate	9,116	20,399	9,116		20,399	...
	Secondary	3,37,563	77,617	2,37,662		77,343	374
	Primary	78,894	3,89,817	78,894		94,838	2,94,979
	Normal	9,722	7,960	9,723		7,892	68
BOMBAY	Collegiate	600	3,143	600	...	3,143	...
	Secondary	28,048	46,055	28,048		46,055	...
	Primary	5,590	21,901	5,590	...	18,750	3,151
BIHAR*	Collegiate	24,900	21,450	24,900	...	21,450	...
	Secondary	3,30,687	2,98,306	3,30,687	...	2,84,131	14,385
	Primary	1,61,259	5,35,79*	1,61,259	...	5,23,418	12,283
	Normal	12,132	8,212	12,132	...	8,212	...
MADHIA AND GUJARAT	Collegiate	34,668	18,763	34,668		18,762	...
	Secondary	1,80,659	53,373	1,65,798	14,861	49,234	4,39
	Primary	37,755	68,364	34,309	3,44*	61,078	7,286
	Normal	5,335	1,968	5,180	155	1,968	
PUNJAB	Collegiate	**	27,373		**	31,005	6,3734
	Secondary	49,944	31,569	49,944	...	28,125	3,444
	Primary	48,269	49,620	48,269	...	42,241	7,379
	Normal	17,285	18,130	17,285	...	16,280	1,850
CENTRAL PROVINCES	Collegiate	ut		4M	...		««
	Secondary	13,736	14,116	13,736	...	11,382	3,734
	Primary	23,318	25,272	20,665	2,653	24,000	3,373
ASSAM	Secondary	...	17,622	4M		17,337	285
	Primary	...	63,794	11,585	51,309
	Normal	...	2,205	2,305	...
	Secondary	
TRIPURA	Primary	312	312	312	...	312	...
	Normal
	Secondary	
TRIPURA	Primary	—	3,790	3,400	390
	Secondary	
TOTAL FOR INDIA?	Collegiate	«9»*84j	9i,x*6	69,284	...	84,754	6,37*
	Secondary	8,40,736	8»38»88	8,25i«75	14,861	5,*3,497	25,36*
	Primary	3,45,397	**»58,571	3,39,*9«	6,099	7,79,62*	3»7»949
	Normal	44,474	38,475	44j3*9	*55	36,557	*»9*8

* Excluding expenditure on schools and colleges for the Government Oriental Colleges are excluded from this
 † Excluding Amir, British Burma and all Native States
 ‡ Excluding building and other special grants.
 § Excluding the aided Oriental Colleges, the ordinary grants
 ¶ Excluding the aided (Mental) Colleges, the average cost
 ** Including aided Oriental Colleges, but excluding the fees

'Rides on each Glass of Aided Institutions in the official year 1881-83

COST (a) OF EACH SCHOLAR IN AIDED INSTITUTIONS 1881-82 TO				COST (a) OF EACH SCHOLAR IN UNAIDED INSTITUTIONS 1881-82 TO				CD 29	1881-82	1882-83
Provincial Revenues.	Other Public funds.	Private sources.	TOTAL.	Provincial Revenues.	Other Public Funds.	Private Sources.	TOTAL.	% of total cost	Number of pupils	Cost per pupil
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Ba. p.	ft a. p.	ft a. p.	ft a. p.	ft a. p.	ft a. p.	ft a. p.	ft a. p.			
39 9 8	...	95 9 0	1*5 a 8	210 1 2	...	47 12 6	*57 13 8	23*76	17*78	a Calculated on the average monthly number of the pupils enrolled.
6 7 2	006	23 0 7	* 9 8 3	1 8 5 8	* 6 0	1 7 7 7	38 3 3	48*20	44*02	
0 7 5	1 7 3	3 13 4	4 XX XX	0 15 3	3 15 4	1 3 4	6 x xx	32*54	18*53	
29 6 2	0 3 11	88 11 3	"7 5 4	47 9 9	37 7 5	...	85 x a	5*75	...	
35 14 7	MI	235 12 7	*71 xo 9	274 13 0	9 10 4	162 8 4	446 * 8	31*72	18* 38	
8 xo 8	...	21 1 2	29 xi 10	13 9 9	3 7 4	J5 12 3	3* *3 4	38*49	44*73	
1 6 7 *	0 3 8	4 6 0	6 0 3	1 1 2 8	O 1 0	0 1 0 5	4 7 0	10*77	14*31	
38 0 7	...	157 4 n	185 5 6	317 5 8	...	103 3 9	3xo 0 5	29* 15	37*51	
3 » 0	030	841	ia 3 1	10 4 4	0 14	14 0 5	24 6 x	33*59	5*33	
0 11 6	003	3 10	2 xz 9	3 14 3	...	0 2 0	403	52*68	...	
34 9 4	..	57 5 *5	8x *4 9	103 8 2	0 9 4	0 15 7	10\$ 1 1	8*57	'93	
76 9 3	...	134 15 3	axx 8 6	534 8 6	...	323 11 8	75* 4 *	4*58	5*65	
19 4 :i	i 10 5	33 3 1	44 * 5	34 8 3	3 13 7	3 rr lo	4» * 7	3'3<5	6*89	
4 3 7	084	614	xo xz 3	0 ro 4	2 12 6	0 3 r°	3 xo 8	W'70	539	
»4 4 9	1 7 8	56 9 4	8a 5 9	100 9 7	20 X3 5	072	tax 14 a	10*85	...	
107 1 36	33 8 2b	197 *4 3*	337 *	477 1 10	...	2r 13 10	408 18 8	*35*	4*38	5 Inclusive of inseparable expenditure incurred by the Punjab University College as well as by the Oriental College and attached school.
29 *3 *	3 10 5	40 1X 8	74 3 3	35 4 8	13 6 4	S 0 5	4a ix 5	7*88	9*9@	a Excluding the fees and total expenditure of the Punjab University College.
300	084	5 14 0	964	068	3 11 10	0 id 1	4 xa 7	12*10	11*45	
90 15 a	10 5 4	57 3 9	*58 7 3	82 x B	118 8 8	M*	ao0 xo 4	*26	***	
»*«	165 8 5	...	30 10 8	186 3 X	...	iro\$	
17 * 8	430	30 4 4	41 9 0	28 2 2	3 t* t	4 TO 10	36 XX t	11*45	9*15	
J 4 3	0 1 11	1 ro 6	308	0 15 0	t 9 *	0 fi 11	3 ifi 0	#43	8*35	
4 i* 10	0 13	761	xa 4 a	9 15 5	...	8 jo ti	18 xo 4	36*02	45*33	
058	19 3	113	30a	208	-	-	a 0 8	17*61	...	
33 3 4	...	13 4 3	38 7 7	59 0 n	17 15 9	0 13 11	77 *4 7	...	*65	
4 4 5	...	3 4 9	**a r 9 *	0 xi 0	* 3 9	0 fi 0	* 3 4 9	3*79	U'47	
...	**»	
**	MP	»*«	1*76	
0 13 I	0 16	3 3 10	4*5	3 9 3	3 1 2	080	6 a 4	73*48	8*18	
4* 9 if	3*0	*43 * 9	x88 xa to	*53 9 9	* 3 9	99 xx 7	354 9 x	**2004	12*53	
515	040	xi 6 8	x6 13 X	16 15 4	a 8 8	xx 15 7	3i 7 7	3**44	3448	
O 13 I	0 5 XI	a 5 x	3 7 1	0 t& 4	J14 s	088	4*5	4***4	IX*T	
37 is xo	a x 8	61 13 4	xox XX xo	89 14 xx	3* * 9	098	xax xo 4	5*xo	...	

Europeans and Eurasians.
 Table
 that administer their own system of education.
 to the English Arts Colleges for 1870-71 amounted to Rs. 6,462, and for 1881-83 to Rs. 60,207.
 to Provincial Revenues was Rs. 35-14-3 for each pupil in average monthly attendance.
 and total expenditure of the Punjab University College. In the aided English Colleges, the percentage of cost met by fees was 3.44.

[CHAP. VIII.]

448. Expenditure on each Class of Aided Institutions.—To this Table an explanation of considerable importance must be added. It compares the annual cost of each scholar in an aided institution with the cost of each scholar in a departmental institution of the same class; but in stating the cost of the latter to public funds, it is only the funds directly administered by the Education Department that are taken into account. It must be remembered that the teachers in departmental schools are Government servants, and as such receive pensions, the expense of which of course falls upon the State, though not upon the funds set apart for education. In the primary and lower middle schools of the Department in Bombay, however, the pensions are a charge on local funds, and are included in the cost shown in the Table. With this exception, to find the true cost to public funds of each scholar in a departmental institution, some allowance for pensions must manifestly be made. In comparing the total cost of departmental and aided institutions, this element need perhaps hardly be considered. In aided institutions there are, no doubt, some pensions and other indirect expenses as well as in departmental institutions, though probably not to the same extent. But in estimating the cost of the two classes of institutions to the State, the case is different. Whatever pensions or other indirect charges in privately managed institutions may not be shown in our Table, devolve on their managers alone. In the case of departmental institutions all such charges devolve upon public funds, and cannot be left out of view if the comparison of the cost of the two classes of institutions to the State is to be fairly made. The question thus arises how such indirect charges for education upon State funds should be calculated. Probably the best guide upon this point is Circular No. 11 of the Government of India, dated Simla, June 29th, 1882, which provides that the amount payable to secure pension on account of an officer lent to a foreign State or to a local body, shall be one-sixth of the salary he draws from his temporary paymasters. The rate was formerly one-fourth of the salary so drawn; but recent actuarial calculations, coupled with the fact that "in view of the present arrangements for the extension of local self-government..... the Government of India is desirous " of facilitating in every reasonable way the lending of officers to local bodies," have led to its reduction. Thus, if the real cost to the State of salaries in a departmental institution is to be calculated, the sum that should be added to the expenditure from educational funds on this account will be one-sixth. But we must also take into account that some portion of the expenditure on every school goes to supply furniture, apparatus, prizes and other items on which no allowance for pensions is required. The figures furnished to us give, however, only the total outlay upon schools, without distinguishing the amount applied to the payment of salaries. There is thus a question as to what the total should be on which the addition of one-sixth is to be calculated. If one-sixth were to be added to the gross outlay, a total would result which would be somewhat in excess of the real cost of the institution to the State. It may suffice for practical purposes if one-sixth be added, not to the gross but to the net outlay from public funds in educating each scholar in a departmental institution,—thus setting off the income from fees, endowments and the like, against such items of expense as involve no charge for pension. This mode of calculation will indeed under-estimate the true amount, for the expenditure on salaries must in every case largely exceed the net outlay from those public funds for the administration of which the Department is responsible. Still, as only a fair approximation

is attainable in any case and as this mode of calculation does at least not exaggerate the cost to the State of departmental as compared with aided institutions, it may be held to be practically satisfactory. Thus it will be understood that if the net cost of educating a scholar in a departmental school appears in our Table as, say, Rs. 18 per annum,

the real cost of his education to the State is at least one-sixth more, or Rs. 21 per annum. There is yet another way in which the Table understates the cost to the State of scholars in departmental as compared with aided institutions. The expenditure which it shows, and on which the net average cost of each scholar has been calculated, does not include the sums, or the interest on the sums, spent in the erection of buildings for departmental schools. The grants made to meet the expenditure of managers upon buildings for aided schools are also left out of view but as the amount of such grants is insignificant when compared with the outlay upon buildings for departmental schools and colleges, the inclusion of this element would greatly increase the difference in the cost to the State of scholars educated in the two classes of institutions. There are, however, no adequate data on which any precise calculation of the amount of this difference could be based; and having thus simply referred to the point, we shall not again advert to it.

In this Table also, as stated in the last paragraph, a disturbing influence affects the figures of some Provinces for 1870-71 on account of the impossibility of distinguishing from other grants-in-aid the amount spent in aiding schools for Europeans and Eurasians. Moreover, as already noticed, extensive changes of classification have been made, so that some schools which were placed among secondary in 1870-71 are reckoned as primary in 1881-82, and *vice versa*. Again, the amount spent on primary education in primary departments attached to secondary schools cannot in all Provinces be separated for 1870-71 from the expenditure on secondary education generally. We shall again notice this point in connection with the Provinces which it specially affects. These last considerations undoubtedly make the real reduction of the amount of aid afforded to private effort in secondary education less than it appears to be in the Tables. But we have done all that has been in our power to make our figures accurate, and to secure that only similar things are compared with one another. We believe that our efforts have been approximately successful, and that, though accuracy is now unfortunately unattainable, the conclusions based upon the Tables are substantially correct.

449. Increase or Decrease of the Aid given to private Effort-

Having thus given such explanations as the Tables call for, we proceed to notice some of the most practically important points which they elucidate, foremost among these points is that which is shown in Table III, *via.*, that during the last eleven years there has been no increase in the proportion of public funds devoted to the encouragement of purely private effort, and therefore no progress towards the substitution of purely private for departmental agency. If it were possible to rely implicitly on the statistics for 1870-71, the inference might be drawn for most Provinces that there has been not only no progress but distinct retrogression in carrying out that policy of encouraging private effort; which has been laid down in the various Despatches*. Thus from the Table it would appear that in every Province except Bengal, where there is an increase of between 3 and 4 cent., the proportion of public funds spent in the encouragement of private effort is less in 1881-82 than it was in 1870-71; the proportion of diminution being in round figures 2 per cent, in Bombay and the Central Provinces, 4 per cent, in the Punjab, and about 8 per cent, in Madras, and the North-Western Provinces. But various elements of uncertainty prevent us from accepting the inferences which the Table thus appears to warrant. In Bengal we have already shown that the cost of buildings for (Government, schools cannot be included in the statement for 1870-71*. If this expenditure could be included, the percentage of grants, to total expenditure from public funds would be less for that year, and

the percentage of increase in 1881-82 would consequently be greater. So also in Madras, Bengal, and the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, the grants to schools for Europeans and Eurasians are eliminated for 1881-82, but cannot be separated from other grants for 1870-71. This fact accounts for a considerable part of the diminution in Madras, and especially in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, where a large share of the grants has always been applied to European and Eurasian education. In the case of Bengal the increase in the proportion of public funds devoted to the encouragement of private effort would be still greater than is shown in our Table if the materials for precise statement were now available. Altogether, the facts before us do not warrant any stronger inference than that in India generally there has been little if any increase in the proportion of public funds spent in the development of private effort, and no appreciable progress towards the substitution of private agency for the direct instrumentality of Government in the supply of the means of education. It appears, moreover, from Table IV, that though there may have been little or no real diminution of the aid afforded to private effort generally, there has been a serious falling off in some Provinces in the amount devoted to the encouragement of private effort in those advanced stages of education, the extension of which the Despatches regarded as the special field of the grant-in-aid system. It will be seen from Table IV that the grants-in-aid of all classes of schools under private managers amounted in 1870-71 to Rs. 12,99,891, of which only Es. 3,45,397* or about 26 per cent., was spent on aided primary schools. In 1881-82, however, out of grants-in-aid amounting to Rs. 18,27,030, a sum of Rs. 11,58,571, or about 63 per cent., of the whole, was spent on aided primary schools. This striking increase was due in part to the changes of classification to which reference has been made already; but these changes go but a small way to account for it. It arises mainly from the increased amount of public funds devoted in Madras, and still more in Bengal, to the aid of primary schools under private managers. Now, we have seen that there has been no increase in the proportion of public funds spent on grants-in-aid generally. Since, therefore, there has been a great and undoubted increase in the proportion of public funds spent on aided primary schools, it is clear that there must have been a corresponding reduction in the proportion of such funds applied to the encouragement of advanced institutions under private managers. The point, however, is important enough to deserve somewhat fuller investigation.

It appears from Table IV that there has been in every Province, except Bombay and the Central Provinces, a diminution in the encouragement afforded to aided education of an advanced character, though in Bengal, on account of considerations adduced above, the diminution is apparent rather than real. In the Punjab there is an apparent increase in the grant to aided colleges; for the Table shows Rs. 27,372 of public funds spent on one aided college in 1881-82, while no such expenditure is shown in 1870-71* As, however, we have explained already, the non-departmental college which receives aid in this Province is the Oriental College at Lahore, and this, though we have classed it as an aided college, stands on an altogether different footing from aided colleges generally. Some part also of this grant was spent by the Punjab University College for other purposes than those of direct instruction. In Madras, also, there is some increase (from Rs. 9,116 to Rs. 20,399) the aid given to non-departmental colleges, but this is far more than counterbalanced by the very large decrease in the aid afforded to secondary schools under private managers. In the North-Western Provinces and Bengal there is a diminution in the amount spent in aiding private effort alike at the secondary and the collegiate stage, though in the latter Province

the falling off is insignificant in proportion to the total outlay, and probably only a matter of account. Putting secondary and collegiate education together, it appears that the decrease in the various Provinces stands as follows

	Rs.
Madras	1,48,762
Bengal together with Assam	18 009
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	1 43 192
Punjab (omitting the Oriental College)	18,375
Total Decrease	, 3,28,338

Against this have to be set the following increases :—

	Rs.
Bombay ^	380
Central Provinces	380
Total	20,930

This leaves the total decrease in the amount of aid afforded to private effort for the extension of education above the primary stage at Rs. 3,07,408. In 1870-71 the total grants to advanced education amounted to Rs. 9,10,020. In 1881-82 these grants (excluding that to the Oriental College at Lahore) had apparently fallen to Rs. 6,02,612 or by more than 33 per cent, of their entire amount. This decrease is, however, partly accounted for in Madras, the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab not only by the impossibility of separating the amount spent in 1870-71 in aiding European and Eurasian secondary schools, but also by the separation in the returns for 1881-82 of the grants to the primary departments attached to secondary schools for Natives. Also in the Central Provinces, the increase shown would be greater were it not for this change in the form of return. In Bengal no change of classification has been made, and in Bombay the figures are very slightly, if at all, affected by this cause. We regret the impossibility of determining from the imperfect records that have been preserved the exact proportion of the decrease that is due to the changed form of educational returns introduced in 1879. The allowance, however, that must be made on this score does not interfere with the inference that aid to private effort in advanced education has diminished; though it renders it impossible to lay any stress on the exact percentage of diminution. Now, it must be borne in mind that it is to education above the primary stage that the grant-in-aid system was intended specially to apply. The Despatches of 1854 and 1859 approved of the extension of primary education by means of private effort as well as by direct departmental agency, although in the later Despatch doubts were expressed as to the applicability of the then existing rules for grants-in-aid to primary education. When it is possible to secure that steady improvement in the quality of primary education on which the Despatches insist, it is quite in accordance with their tenor to extend the education of the masses by means of indigenous schools or other private enterprise. But the extension of primary education by means of private effort is only a part, and not the largest part, of the policy laid down in 1854 which was intended to secure the gradual growth of the system of grants-in-aid, so that it should provide a steadily increasing proportion of the means of advanced education. Considerations of economy which, taken by themselves, have the greatest force where higher and more expensive institutions are concerned, give particular prominence to that part of the aided agency in education which concerns secondary and collegiate institutions. In this point of view it must be confessed that the figures given above afford little ground for satisfaction. Whatever encouragement has been given, and rightly given, in accordance with the prin-

ciples of the Despatches of 1854 and 1859, to primary schools established by private effort, the fact still remains that in some Provinces aid has been withdrawn from that class of institutions to the development of which by means of the grant-in-aid system special encouragement was intended to be given; that in some Provinces advanced departmental institutions have been steadily developed ; and that in only one Province has the amount of aid given to secondary institutions under private managers been materially increased. That aid should be withdrawn from any one institution as it becomes more stable and self-supporting is in accordance with the principles laid down for the guidance of the Department; but that aid should be withdrawn from the whole class of institutions, the extension of which it was hoped would be most effectually promoted by the grant-in-aid system, is plainly opposed to the intention of the Despatches. Again, it should be borne in mind that the reduced aid to private effort in the provision of advanced instruction is given from a largely increased revenue. The public funds allotted to education of all kinds were considerably larger in 1881-82 than in 1870-71, as the following statement shows:-

generally ^ may be regarded as merely the result of the greater attention paid to primary instruction. With the view of answering this question we have prepared the following statement, which shows the outlay from public funds and also the total outlay from all sources on departmental colleges and secondary schools in 1870-71 and 1881-82, respectively: _____

NAME OF PROVINCE*	Outlay from public funds on departmental secondary and collegiate institutions in 1870*71.	Outlay from public funds on departmental secondary and collegiate institutions in 1881*82.	Total outlay from all sources on departmental secondary and collegiate institutions in 1870-71.	Total outlay from all sources on departmental secondary and collegiate institutions in 1881-82.
1	2	3	4	5
	Bs.	Es.	Es.	Rs.
Madras	2,08,052	2,44,434	2,61,416	3,70,775
Bombay	2,48,172	2,60,647	4,^4,599	4,70,148
Bengal and Assam	4,94,934 ^t	5,52,213	8,84,439	10,79,9 ¹²
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	3,48,267	3,27,35 ⁶	4,26,655	3,86,722
Punjab	2,12,738	2,44,846	2,33,266	2,73,496
Central Provinces	1,06,808	68,382	1,22,361	78,173
Haidarabad Assigned Districts	86,905	53,197	86,905	54,i5i
TOTAL	17,05,87 ⁶		24,19,641	27>13,377

* Coorg is omitted, as statistics are not available for 1870-71.

^t Excluding the sum of Rs. 33,588, the net expenditure on the Hooghly College in 1870-71.

Some important explanations must, however, be added to this Table. Most of the increase which it shows for Bengal is accounted for by an order of the Government of India in 1873. The circumstances will be described at length in the part of the Report devoted to Muhammadan education (Chapter IX)* At present it is enough to state that in 1873 the Government of India ordered that the income of the Mohsin Endowment Fund, from which the cost of the College at Hugli had up to that time been defrayed, should be applied more directly to the cost of Muhammadan education; and it accordingly made an addition to the Bengal Provincial assignment for the future support of the Hugli College. The real effect of this order was to increase the expenditure not on departmental colleges but on Muhammadan education; though as a matter of account the increase is necessarily shown under the former head. The net cost of the Hugli College to the Mohsin endowment in 1870-71 was Rs. 33,588; and for purposes of fair comparison, this sum ought to be added to the amount shown in the Table as the outlay on departmental colleges in Bengal for that year. Again, the effect of the change of classification and the change in the form of return introduced in 1879 must be borne in mind. This does not affect the figures for Bombay, Bengal, and Assam, but in other Provinces the effect is to make the expenditure shown for 1881-82 much less than it would be if the returns for that year were drawn up on the same model as those for 1870-71. Thus the decrease shown in the Table in the expenditure from public funds on advanced education in the Central Provinces and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts is entirely, or almost entirely, due to the expenditure on primary departments attached to secondary schools being now* shown under the head of primary education. This decrease amounts for the one Province to Rs. 38,426, and for the other to Rs. **33,7**^{0^} or both taken together to Rs. 72,134. Similarly, in Madras and the Punjab, the increase of expenditure from public funds shown in the Table would be much greater than it is and in the North-Western Provinces the decrease would be less, if the

expense of primary departments attached to secondary schools in 1870-71 were eliminated, as is done in j 881-82. As it stands, the Table shows an increase in most Provinces in the net outlay from public funds on advanced departmental institutions, and an increase amounting for the whole of India to Rs. 45,199. If, however, the sum of Rs. 33,588 spent on the Hugli College be included in the expenditure for 1870-71, as for just comparison it ought to be, this increase falls to the comparatively small sum of Rs. 11,611. On the other hand, if the sum of Rs. 72,134 in the Central Provinces and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts be kept in view, and also the unknown amounts in Madras, the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab, which have been merely shifted in the accounts from the head of secondary to the head of primary instruction, it will appear that the real increase in the outlay from public funds on advanced departmental institutions must be very considerable. Thus the general result of the enquiry is that, taking India as a whole, there has been an important reduction in the aid to private effort in advanced education, and no reduction in the outlay from public funds on advanced departmental institutions, while in some Provinces the outlay on institutions of the latter class has largely increased. Columns 4 and 5 of the last tabular statement show, however, that in some Provinces there is a much greater increase in the total outlay on departmental institutions than in their net cost to public funds. This difference between the increase in their total cost and the increase in the outlay upon them from public funds is mainly met by increased receipts from fees—a most satisfactory proof of the growing estimation in which advanced education is held in some Provinces, and of the growing willingness of those who receive its benefits to bear a considerable proportion of its cost. According to the principles of the Despatch there ought to have been no increase in the expenditure on departmental institutions for advanced education, and a steady growth in the number of aided institutions of that class, such as might possibly have necessitated some addition to the total amount of aid afforded to them. The reverse is what has actually taken place, though it is but fair to add that it is in Madras and the North-Western Provinces alone, that the progress of aided effort for the supply of advanced education has been distinctly checked. Yet it plainly appears upon the whole that the practical policy of the Department has been to keep the advanced institutions under its own management intact, and to expend the surplus left at its disposal by the increasing measure of self-support in such institutions, on the extension of advanced education through departmental agency; while it further appears that in some Provinces the saving effected by diminished aid to advanced institutions under private managers has been applied to the development of advanced departmental institutions.

Connected with this is the fact brought out in column 10 of Table III, that in every Province, except the Central Provinces and Coorg, the proportion of the total expense of aided institutions that is met by grants-in-aid has diminished since 1870-71. It is certainly right that as self-support by means of fees increases, the proportion of aid afforded from public funds should diminish, and if this fact stood alone, it would furnish no valid ground for complaint. But when taken in connection with the diminished amount of aid afforded to privately managed education of an advanced character,—an amount diminished, not only relatively to the increased educational resources but even absolutely,—it seems to disclose on the part of those who have been responsible for the distribution of educational funds a tendency by no means favourable to the full development of private enterprise in advanced education.

The caution given above, that the figures for 1870-71 are not to be trusted too implicitly, should be carefully borne in mind; but there is one portion of

those figures to which no doubt or ambiguity attaches—we mean the part that relates to colleges. In the case of colleges there has been no change of classification, nor is there any difficulty in disentangling any of the figures bearing on expenditure from public funds. The comparative statistics for 1870-71 and 1881-82 are entirely trustworthy, so far as public funds are concerned. The following statement shows what has been the increased outlay on departmental colleges taken separately, and also the total outlay on them from all sources, at the two dates chosen for comparison:_____

NAME OF PROVINCE.	Net outlay on departmental colleges from public funds in 1870-71.	Net outlay on departmental colleges from public funds in 1881-82.	Total outlay from all sources on departmental colleges in 1870-71.	Total outlay from all sources on departmental colleges in 1881-82.
1	2	3	4	5
	Bs.	Rs,	Es.	Es.
Madras	63,388	1,30,246	75,464	1,59,871
Bombay	89,353	88,467	1,25,699	1,38,953
Bengal	2,25,770*	2,55,828	3,06,260+	3,77,334
North-Western Provinces and Oudh.	52,67 ^o	88,733	■ iji	1,25,871
Punjab	5 ^o ,47 ^o	45,803	57,901	47,902
Central Provinces	None	9,435	None	10,613
TOTAL	4,81,657	6,18,512		8,60,544

* Including the net outlay on the Hugli College. f Including expenditure on the Hagli College.
X The total outlay on colleges cannot be separated from the outlay on the attached collegiate schools.

It thus appears that even including the cost of the Hugli college in the statement for 1870-71, the net outlay on departmental general education has increased in every Province except, pambay and the Punjab, while at the same time the receipts from fees and other sources have largely increased in some of them. The net expenditure on departmental colleges from public funds was greater for the whole of India in 1881-82, or about 28 per cent, than it had been eleven years before. Their students had, it is true, increased in numbers from about 1,700 to 2,698, or in a ratio of about 58 per cent. But the extent to which departmental agency at this stage of education has been preferred appears from the companion fact brought out in columns 3 and 4 of Table IV, that (omitting the grants to Oriental Colleges) the grant to aided colleges of the ordinary type has fallen from Rs. 66,462 in 1870-71 to Rs. 60,207 in 1881-82, that is, by about 10 per cent. Meanwhile, the number of students in aided colleges had risen from about 660 in 1870-71 to 1,994 in 1881-82, or by more than 200 per cent.

Thus, when all reasonable deductions have been made on the score of the uncertainty of some of the elements that enter into the statistics of secondary education for 1870-71, we are satisfied that enough remains to show that private effort for the provision of advanced education has not yet received the encouragement contemplated in the Despatch of 1854, and consequently that the development of education has not on the whole followed the lines which that Despatch laid down.

450. Comparative Expenditure of Education in aided and departmental Institutions.—Another point of practical importance which is illustrated in Table IV, is the great difference between the cost of education in a departmental and a privately managed institution. This difference, as might be expected, grows greater the higher we ascend in the scale of education

Columns 12 and 16 compare the cost of educating a scholar in each of the two classes of institutions. In the large majority of cases the departmental institution is much the more expensive, the greatest difference being found between the departmental and the aided colleges of the North-Western Provinces and of Madras. In the former Province the entire cost of educating a student in a departmental college is more than three times, and in the latter more than twice, what it costs to educate a student in an aided college. The departmental institution is not, however, in all cases, the more costly on the whole. The usual relation is reversed in the case of the secondary schools of the Punjab and the Central Provinces, and in the case of the primary schools of Bombay, the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab, Assam and Coorg. If oriental colleges be left out of view, the average cost for the whole of India of each student in an aided college is Bs. 178 per annum, while that of each student in a departmental college is Rs. 354. Thus it appears from columns 12 and 16 of Table IV that for educating each scholar in a departmental college the average outlay is twice, and in a departmental secondary school somewhat less than twice, the cost in corresponding aided institutions; while the total average outlay on each scholar in a departmental primary school is only about 27 per cent, greater than the average outlay on each scholar in an aided primary school. This consideration gives emphasis to the fact that it is in education above the primary stage that the greatest advantage will arise from the substitution of aided private effort for the direct agency of the department, wherever private agency becomes competent to undertake the task.

The difference of cost is important in another point of view, when we consider, not the total outlay on the two classes of institutions, but their respective cost to public funds. This is shown in Table IV in columns 9 and 10 for aided, and in columns 13 and 14 for departmental institutions. With the exception of primary schools in the North-Western Provinces and in Coorg, all classes of aided institutions in all Provinces are much less expensive to the State than corresponding departmental institutions. The difference is greatest in colleges. In Madras, Bombay, Bengal and the North-Western Provinces, which alone have both departmental and aided colleges of the common type, colleges of the former class are between seven and eight times as expensive to the State for each student whom they educate as the latter. Taking India as a whole, the average yearly cost to the State of each student at an aided college of the ordinary type is Es. 36, while it costs the State Us. 254 per annum to educate each student at an English departmental college. Thus, to educate each student at a departmental college is rather more than seven times as expensive to the State as to educate each student at an ordinary aided college. It must be remembered also at this point that we have shown in paragraphs 407, 413, and 425 of the present Chapter, that in Madras, Bombay and the North-Western Provinces, the two classes of colleges are about equally efficient so far as the examination test can be applied to them, although in Bengal the results are decidedly in favour of departmental colleges. It further appears from the

□ columns we are now dealing with in Table IV, that, taking the average for the whole of India, each scholar at a departmental secondary school, and also each scholar at a departmental primary school, is about three and a half times as expensive to the State as each scholar in corresponding aided schools.

It must be remembered that the Table takes account of none but strictly educational funds, and that if the other expenses referred to in paragraph ^9 be added, the difference in the cost of the two classes of institutions to the State will become considerably greater. We shall return to the consideration of this subject-when we come to speak of the withdrawal of the State from the direct provision of the means of advanced education.' M^ean while we may antd-

ciate a point that will be discussed at length, hereafter, when we shall show that the difference in cost between departmental and aided colleges is by no means the only element to be considered.

451. Amount of Self-support by means of Fees in aided and departmental Institutions.—An interesting and important question on which these Tables cast some light, is the amount of self-support by means of fees attained by privately managed institutions of various classes and in the various Provinces. This is shown in column 17 of Table IV. The differences brought out are startling. For example, while aided colleges in Bengal raise 29 per cent, of their entire expense by fees, those in the neighbouring North-Western Provinces raise only 4-58 per cent.; and while aided secondary schools in Madras are self-supporting to the extent of 48 per cent, of their entire outlay, corresponding schools in the North-Western Provinces are self-supporting only in the proportion of 3*36 per cent.

The Table also compares the amount of self-support attained by aided and departmental institutions respectively; though, as explained in paragraph 448, the fees in the latter class of institutions are compared, not with the whole amount these institutions cost the State, but only with the outlay upon them from strictly educational funds. In this particular there is a nearer approach between the two classes of institutions than might perhaps have been expected; In Provinces where a large measure of self-support is attained by the one class, it is usually attained also by the other. The most marked exceptions are the aided secondary schools of Bombay and Bengal, of which the former raise by means of fees 16*24 per cent, less, and the latter 20 per cent, less than the corresponding departmental institutions. In all other cases the percentages approach each other much more closely. In Madras alone are aided institutions at every stage more self-supporting than those managed by the Department; but in that Province the superiority of the former in this respect is very decided, especially at the stage of primary education.

452. The Energy sometimes shown by private Effort.—Much is brought out in these Tables which tends to show the great vitality of aided effort in the higher, as in the lower, stages of education. This appears from the way in which it has increased when there has been even a small increase in the encouragement afforded it, and by its comparatively small decrease when a large amount of encouragement has been withdrawn. For example, in Madras an increase of Us. 11,283 per annum in the aid afforded to colleges under private managers, has been accompanied by an increase in the number of students attending such colleges from 130 in 1870-71 to 803 in 1881-82; so that, while they were educating at the former period only 31*10 per cent., they were educating at the latter 48*11 per cent, of the entire number of students attending all the colleges in the Province. Similarly, an increase of Rs. 2,543 in the aid afforded to colleges conducted by private managers in Bombay has been accompanied by an increase in the number of students attending such colleges from 47 in 1870-71 to 139 in 1881-82; so that, while they were educating at the former period only 15*82 per cent., they were educating at the latter 29*26 per cent, of the entire number of students attending all the colleges of the Province. In Bengal, where the aid to private colleges has not increased, but owing to the closing of two aided colleges has slightly fallen off, aided colleges had only 394 students in 1870-71, but 895 in 1881-82; their students having risen from 28*18 per cent, of the whole number receiving a collegiate education in the Province at the former period to 32*68 per cent, at the latter. But the most remarkable example of the degree in which private effort has sometimes flourished in spite of the withdrawal of encouragement, is afforded by aided second-

ary education in Madras. It appears from Table IV that the aid extended to private effort at this stage of education fell from Es. 2,37,662 in 1870-71 to Bs. 77,617 in 1881-82. A considerable proportion of this decrease is undoubtedly due to changes of classification and to the other causes above explained; but that aid was very largely withdrawn is well known. Yet while the number of pupils in the middle and high departments of aided and unaided secondary schools, that is of pupils actually receiving secondary instruction, is known to have been 18,893 in 1870-71, it was still 13,072 in aided schools alone in 1881-82, while in aided and unaided schools together it was 18,001; so that the reduction in the number of pupils being educated by private effort was extremely small in comparison with the reduction in the grants, though of course the natural growth of secondary education has been interfered with. It has also been ascertained that the pupils in the middle and high departments of departmental secondary schools had increased from 3,233 in 1870-71 to 6,288 in 1881-82, or had nearly doubled. In spite of the two-fold discouragement thus arising from reduction of grants on the one side and the development of departmental agency on the other, private effort had but slightly fallen off. *

453. Summary.—The Tables illustrate many questions of no small importance in addition to those to which we have drawn particular attention; but on other points they must be left to speak for themselves. The warning may be repeated here that the statistics for 1871 are not, except for colleges, so trustworthy as to make it safe to push very far the contrast between the two periods chosen for comparison. The real differences undoubtedly vary in some degree from those shown in the Tables. Nevertheless, after long and careful investigation, we are satisfied that there is ample and unquestionable ground for the five general inferences with which we shall close this section of the Chapter. Our inferences are these:—

- (1) Such increased encouragement as has been given to private effort by means of the grant-in-aid system, has been in the extension of primary and not, as the Despatches chiefly contemplate, of more advanced education.
- (2) In Bengal, Assam, and the Central Provinces, the state of matters, so far as encouragement to private effort in the provision of advanced education is concerned, is substantially the same as in 1870-71. If there has been no further progress towards carrying out the policy laid down in 1854, for placing the main reliance for the provision of advanced education on aided private effort, there has at least been no important retrogression.
- (3) In Bombay, the Punjab* Coorg and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, at no time have sufficient endeavours been made to carry out those provisions of the Despatch of **1854** which bear on private effort; but Bombay alone among the Provinces has in recent years given materially increased encouragement to private effort in providing advanced education, while it has at the same time not greatly increased its outlay on advanced departmental institutions generally, and has diminished its net outlay from public funds on departmental colleges.
- (4) In the North-Western Provinces and Madras the general tendency during the eleven years under review has been to provide higher education more and more by means of departmental agency, and to lessen the encouragement to private managers of advanced institutions, thus reversing the policy of the **Despatch** of 1854. In Madras such a reversal of policy is the more strik-

ing, because, up to 1870-71 and for several years afterwards, the success of the system of grants-in-aid was particularly conspicuous.

- (5) With due encouragement from the State, private effort is capable, in favourable circumstances, of promoting education at the secondary? and in a less degree at the collegiate stage at a far more rapid rate, and in both cases at far less expense than have marked the progress of such education hitherto.

Section 4.- Systems of Grants-in-aid; their Advantages and Disadvantages**

454. Different Systems of Grants-in-aid.—There are five grant-in-aid systems in force in the various Provinces: (1) the system of salary grants, (2) the system known as that of payment by results, (3) the combined system, giving small salary grants and additional payment by results, (4) the Bengal or “fixed period” system, based on expenditure and modified by results, and (5) the capitation grant system, which, is applied on a very limited scale. The salary-grant system is peculiar to Madras, and the combined system almost so, though in a few Districts of Bengal and generally in Assam a mixed system of small stipends, combined with payments after examination, is applied to primary schools. The system of payment by results obtains in Madras for the majority of schools that afford elementary instruction, and in Bombay for nearly all institutions of every class. In Bengal, the Central Provinces and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, it is in force for primary schools only. In Assam it is applied to tols and maktabas. The “fixed period” system is adopted for all schools above the primary stages in Bengal, the Central Provinces, -and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, and for all classes of schools in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, the Punjab, and Coorg, as also in Assam for all schools except tols and maktabas. The rules under which each of these systems is administered are given in full in the various Provincial Exports. Only their main characteristics need be recounted here. In addition to these systems of aid there are special grants to meet special cases. For example, in Bombay, charitable institutions receive fixed grants not dependent on the results of examination, and sums collected by way of endowment are supplemented by the State.

455. A perfect System unattainable—There are difficulties and drawbacks in all systems. No more can reasonably be looked for than to combine as many advantages with as few disadvantages as possible; and in determining how this is to be done, much will necessarily depend not only on the advancement and social condition of each Province and the nature of the agencies at work in it, but also on the system to which managers of schools have become accustomed, and which, whether rightly or wrongly, they prefer.

456. The Salary-grant System—This system is in force only in Madras; and there it is applied mainly, but not exclusively, to institutions which afford somewhat advanced instruction, and for which managers of approved standing are responsible. The rules require that any institution receiving aid on this system shall be managed by one or more persons, who in the capacity of Proprietors, Trustees, or Members of a Committee appointed by those to whom the school or college owes its origin, will undertake the superintendence of the school and be answerable for its permanence for a given time. Grants are given in aid of the salaries of teachers and are paid monthly. The grant in each case amounts to a certain proportion of whatever salary the managers may

a^oTee to pay, provided that the salary does not exceed a maximum which is laid down in the rules, and which varies according to the qualifications that a teacher may possess. In order to be qualified to receive any grant, a teacher must have passed certain examinations * and in ordinary circumstances the managers do not receive on his account the highest proportion of his salary that may be given under the rules, unless he has been trained in a Normal school. Graduates of Universities in Europe, America, and Australia, and holders of certificates granted by the Committee of Council on Education in Great Britain, or by the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland, are exempted from the operation of the last provision. All male teachers are arranged in five, and female teachers in three, grades, according to the examinations passed. The grade to which a teacher belongs determines the maximum salary of which the managers are allowed to draw a certain proportion on his account. It is, however provided that in cases where managers may be desirous of giving to a teacher of the first grade a higher salary than the maximum contemplated in the scale, a proportionate grant may, with the sanction of Government, be assigned to him. This provision is specially intended to meet the case of European Professors employed in aided colleges, whose salaries are naturally higher than those of natives of the country in that grade. Again, in certain cases, for PTamp in schools for the poor and for Muhammadans and whenever a certificated teacher of a particular subject cannot be obtained, a salary grant may, with the sanction of Government, be assigned to a teacher who has not passed the departmental tests but has been approved by the Inspector.

457. The Salary-grant System: its Advantages—The Advantages of this system are numerous. It tends to ensure efficiency by inducing managers to employ teachers who have proved by success at an examination that they have acquired a certain amount of knowledge and some fitness for imparting it to others. It is likely, in course of time, to provide a body of thoroughly trained teachers and to secure that ultimately the great and important work of education will not be left to men incompetent to perform it. Tears must still pass before it can be hoped that all teachers shall be trained or certificated, but year by year under the influence of the system steady progress is being made towards this most desirable end. Again, the system leaves the greatest freedom to managers as regards the choice of text-books and all other points in the internal economy of schools, and so supplies a strong inducement to private educational effort. Complaints have indeed been made in Madras of a tendency to bring all educational activity under rigid and mechanical rule. Such complaints will be inquired into in the proper place, but they do not arise from the system under which grants are given. If the system is properly administered, the schools under it have the fullest scope for free development. There is a mini. mum of departmental interference. The Inspector simply has to see that the pupils are well taught, that they know what they profess to know, that their general intelligence is cultivated, and that the discipline is good. Under this system, too, there is little danger of information being confounded with education. Neither teachers nor pupils are compelled to work under high pressure to prepare for examinations, nor are they tempted to give their main attention to getting up the special points that are most likely to be noticed by the Inspector on his visit. It removes also any opposition of interests between managers and the Department. Under it, the only interest of both alike is that the school should be improved and should prosper. The Inspector is not predisposed by **any** desire for economy to take an unfavourable view of the condition of the school, since the grant it will receive does not directly depend on the judgment that he passes. The system also provides in a natural and easy mamw for the growth of institutions. If managers wish to open an additional and the

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Department is convinced that it is really needed, a duly certificated teacher is employed, and an additional grant of the fixed proportion of his salary is bestowed. The system tends also to give stability to an institution; since the grant depends upon the quality of the staff, and not on the number of pupils or their success at examinations, which even in the very best schools fluctuate considerably from year to year.

458. The Salary-grant System: its Disadvantages.-On the other hand, the system has its disadvantages. There is danger under it of a school being content with mediocrity, since no pecuniary result depends upon excellence of any kind. It is, of course, understood that continued failure to produce satisfactory results will cause the grant to be withdrawn or reduced; but this is commonly too distant a prospect to have much practical influence. There is danger too of teachers being employed nominally at high salaries, and getting in reality little more than that proportion of the nominal salary which is paid by the State. This is, of course, an act of pure dishonesty; but cases did occur, before sufficient checks were devised, in which teachers gave and managers presented receipts for salaries that were never paid. Obviously the only cure for both these dangers is efficient and trustworthy management. Without this the system cannot be approved; but if really good management is once secured, the effects of the system on the extension and more especially on the quality of education are excellent. One charge that has been sometimes brought against the system is based on a misapprehension. It has been supposed to raise needlessly the expense of education by compelling managers to pay large salaries to teachers. The Department, however, in no way lays down what salaries must be given. The agreement is entirely between the managers and the teachers, and the terms are really fixed by what may be called the market-rate. The Code of rules merely prescribes that the fixed proportion of the salary will be given only up to a certain maximum, and, as a matter of fact, this maximum is seldom even approached.

459. The Salary-grant System: Defects in its Rules.-Some defects in the rules as detailed in the Madras Provincial Report, although they do not trench upon its essential principles, appear to call for notice. The rules as there given apply to all teachers, even to those who have been long in employment. Managers have thus to choose between discharging old, and, it may be, excellent but uncertificated teachers, or paying their salaries without aid. It seems hard that the rules should thus have had a retrospective effect. The Code also provides that a grant of one-third of the salary (the highest proportion that is given) can be drawn by managers on account of a teacher trained in India, only if he has attended a Normal school and obtained a Normal school certificate. Without such a certificate, no one educated exclusively in India, however distinguished his attainments, is eligible for more than a grant of one-fourth of his salary. We do not undervalue the training given by Normal schools. On the contrary, we desire to encourage attendance at such institutions. But we think that a sufficient training may be often given in the school or college in which the teacher has received his ordinary education, and that, especially in the case of men who have been teachers for many years, it is both hard and needless to insist upon their under-going a course of training in a Normal school. An examination might sufficiently test the fitness of men to receive the

highest rate of aid. We therefore recommend that teachers in non-Government institutions be allowed to present themselves for examination for any grade of certificate required by the grant-in-aid rules without being compelled to attend a Normal school. Again, there is a rule which lays down that teachers are not generally

eligible for grants who do not spend in schools four hours a day, and in colleges three hours a day, in actual tuition. It is doubtful whether this rule should be applied, at any rate in colleges. A Professor, in addition to the time spent in actual lecturing, must spend much time also in preparing for lectures and in examining the exercises of his students, whose progress greatly depends on this extra-collegiate work being well done. It may at least be worthy of consideration whether, if three hours be prescribed as the time during which a Professor drawing the maximum salary grant must be employed in tuition, a proviso should not be inserted in the Code allowing a Professor not so fully employed in direct teaching to receive a certain proportion of the maximum grant obtainable. At all events, the rule need not have been applied to Principals of colleges, who have so much beyond tuition to attend to. It is a further defect in the Code, or in its administration, that grants have been held to be liable to arbitrary restrictions and even reductions, in cases where the expenditure on the staff—the basis on which, according to the Code, grants should be calculated—has been greatly increased. One of the aided colleges of Madras has been refused any increase in its grant, even though the number of its pupils and its expenditure have been steadily and largely increasing during a series of years. Another had its grant suddenly reduced in 1878-79 from above 19 to 13 per cent, of its expenditure, while other aided colleges continued to enjoy grants amounting to 31 per cent. No reason was ever assigned for this inequality of treatment, though it was known that the staff of the college last referred to had to be reduced in consequence of the reduction of its grant. The only plea appears to have been that the application of the general rule of the Code to the effect that aid will be given "with due consideration of the requirements of each locality and of the funds at the disposal of Government⁵⁵ was left to the discretion of the Head of the Department. Though redress was at length obtained in the latter case, it was only after appeals and correspondence extending over nearly four years. It certainly appears that any restrictions intended to have permanent effect should be definitely stated in the Code, and should be so stated that their extent and object may be easily understood by those interested. The Code has also been applied to cases where it seems to be inapplicable. It is only by a forced interpretation that a salary-grant system can be made the basis of grants to those who receive no salaries. Now, some important institutions are carried on by religious Societies which do not assign definite rates of pay to their members, even when engaged as masters or Professors. Yet, under this system, a statement must be signed certifying that each of these masters or Professors has received a certain salary, though it is well known that none of them has any separate income but that all are maintained from a common fund. It was necessary for one such Society to obtain a dispensation from its ecclesiastical superiors before it could comply with the forms prescribed in the Code. Such legal fictions are objectionable, even when the real facts are open to all and well understood. We therefore recommend *that in any statement of expenditure required by the grant-in-aid rules from colleges whose Professors are prevented from receiving fixed salaries by the constitution of the religious Societies to which they belong, the expenditure on the maintenance of such colleges be calculated at the rates current in aided institutions of the same general character.* This arrangement will enable the colleges in question to receive a grant fairly proportioned to the staff they maintain and the work they do without any violence to individual consciences or infringement of general rules.

"/; 460* **The Salary-grant System: Summary**—The defects we have thus
" to arise in no way inherent in the system and do not interfere with its
Of the system as such there is no complaint; and provided

that trustworthy management be secured, we consider it to be as thoroughly suitable for colleges and schools of the higher class as it is to all appearance entirely satisfactory to those who are working under it.

461. The System of Payment by Results.—This system is applied in most Provinces to primary schools; also in Bombay to nearly all institutions of every class, and in Madras to secondary schools, though only to a small proportion of their entire number/ Its main feature is that individual pupils are examined by the inspecting officer in a course more or less precisely defined by the Department, and a fixed payment made for each pupil who is pronounced to have attained a certain standard of proficiency. The grant to a school is made up of the total amount thus earned by the individual pupils who have passed. Such a system obviously admits of almost endless diversity of detail with regard to the principles on which schools are allowed to come under its operation, with regard to the course of instruction prescribed, to the frequency of examinations, to the stages at which pupils are examined, to the amount of proficiency that is considered satisfactory, and to the pecuniary allowance that each 'pass' is allowed to earn. For all such details we must refer to the Provincial Reports, especially to those of Bombay and Madras—the Provinces where the rules for this system are most elaborate and precise. It has been already shown under the head of primary education how the system has been applied by the District officers of Bengal, with modifications of many kinds intended to fit it to the peculiarities of different Districts. It would serve no good purpose to enter here upon an examination of particular characteristics which must depend in the very nature of the case mainly upon the circumstances of each Province and the stage that education, particularly education resulting from private effort, has arrived at in it. We shall confine our remarks upon the system to its broad outline and underlying principles. Wherever it is adopted, local knowledge alone can fit it for local wants.

462. The Results System: its Advantages.—One advantage of the system is that it enables the Inspector to gauge the attainments of scholars and to apply praise or blame with an amount of firmness and decision impossible under any system that pays less attention to the examination of individual pupils. Wherever it is successfully administered, the system also secures that State aid is never wholly wasted. Some educational results must be shown for every rupee of public money that is spent. It also tends powerfully to secure activity and energy of some kind on the part of both managers and teachers, since, unless the pupils be worked up to a fair standard of proficiency, the material resources of the school must fall off, and all connected with it must sooner or later suffer. Again, it enables the Department to get free of many troublesome questions about the character and trustworthiness of the management. It is true that attempts at deception have probably been more numerous under this than under any other system, especially in places where it has not yet been brought into complete working order. Registers have been falsified, and pupils borrowed from neighbouring schools have been made the means of earning grants for teachers to whom they owed absolutely nothing. Still these are frauds of a coarse and simple kind, and with a sufficiently numerous body of trustworthy, watchful and energetic inspecting officers, it is not very difficult to put an end to them. Thus, upon the whole, the system avoids difficulties arising from the character of management. If managers are untrustworthy, their imtrustworthiness is easily exposed, and the evils arising from it, so far as mere expenditure of money is concerned, are easily checked. If they are inefficient, their grant is small. The system also is probably the only one that can fairly be applied to those indigenous schools which are mainly

religious in their character. Finally the system enables the Department readily to compare the results obtained in different schools and different Districts, and thus not only to estimate with much greater precision than is possible under any other system, the progress that education is making throughout the country, but also to stimulate educational activity by awaking the spirit of emulation.

463. The Results System: its Disadvantages.—The advantages we have mentioned are undeniable and great. On the other hand, the disadvantages are also numerous. An obvious disadvantage arises from the almost proverbial uncertainty of the results of examination. The system tends to make everything depend on such results, and these, in their turn, are affected by many accidents. The standard demanded by Inspectors necessarily varies with their individual characteristics. The same class may thus earn much larger grants under one Inspector than it would under another. The accidental illness of a few good pupils on the day of inspection may seriously diminish the grant for the whole year. Even the humour in which pupils happen to be when the school is inspected may greatly affect their answering, and consequently the grant that is drawn on their account. From these and many similar causes, trifles though they may be in some cases, there is danger of the grants so fluctuating from year to year that managers cannot tell what are the resources on which they can rely. The stability of the institution is endangered, and progressive outlay on its improvement discouraged. To meet this danger the Bombay Code provides that “ if it can be proved that the grant by results to any school has, through misadventure, for which the managers are not to blame, fallen greatly below the average or previous grant to the same school, a sum not exceeding the grant of the last previous year, or the average grant of the three last previous years, may, with the sanction of Government, be paid to the managers instead of the grant calculated on the results of the current year.⁵³ The same Code secures a certain amount of steadiness in the grants by the provision that “ a school manager may, the year after his school has been examined, receive a grant equal to that of the previous year without a fresh examination under standards, on condition that the Inspector certifies that he is satisfied with the school as regards accommodation, registry of attendance, and discipline, and that he has orally examined a sufficient number of classes to enable him to speak well of the quality of instruction and of the intelligence of the pupils.’ These provisions, if carefully and sympathetically administered, must do something to lessen the disadvantage that the system labours under by reason of the uncertainty and instability of grants. The Bombay Code still further meets this difficulty by providing capitation grants. In Anglo-vernacular secondary schools there is a grant of Bs. 2 on the average daily attendance for the year, and in vernacular schools a grant of 8 annas. In a large school this should meet a reasonable proportion of the expenses and so contribute to stability, besides doing something to secure regularity of attendance.

Again, it is a disadvantage of the system that it tends to give most aid to managers who require aid least, and least to those who need it most. Unless modified, it gives no aid to a school at starting, when its difficulties are naturally greatest. Results must be shown before they are rewarded; yet in education, as in all else, solid results require a large amount of preparatory, and in this case of unaided labour. Even when a school is successfully established, much depends on its situation. In the midst of a population by whom education is valued, it will, if efficient, attract a large number of scholars, many of them intelligent and able, and be able to meet a large proportion of its outlay by the fees they pay. At the same time the results it can easily exhibit will be good, and its grant therefore large. On the other hand, if placed among a poor and back-

ward population, the sum it can draw from fees is certain to be small; and at the same time, since its scholars will be few and probably by no means intelligent, its results will be poor, and its grant insignificant. Thus there is danger that large State aid will be wasted on schools that require but little, while schools whose circumstances make it impossible for them to be in any large measure self-supporting, will remain almost unaided. Yet it is precisely in poor and backward Districts that educational efforts should be most liberally encouraged by the State. This two-fold danger has also, however, been contemplated in the Codes. On the one hand, it is provided in the Madras Code that "rates less than maximum rates may be given to any school when a smaller proportion of aid is evidently sufficient;" and, on the other hand, the Bombay Code provides that "if it can be proved that a school has been established where there is an urgent demand for such a school, and under peculiar difficulties, Government will sanction a grant of half the net expenditure on instruction in the first year after establishment, instead of the usual grant by results, provided that the examination held in the usual form for aided schools is satisfactory to the inspecting officer."⁵ These provisions are excellent as far as they go, but no such modifications can sufficiently meet the disadvantage inherent in the system. In the last revision of the English Code, provision is made for a substantial part of the grant being dependent on the opinion formed by the Inspector of the merit of the school as a whole. In forming this opinion he may take many elements into account, and among them any special difficulties, such as those arising from the poverty or the ignorance of the population which it is sought to educate. This plan of a "merit grant"⁵ as it is called, is now being tried in the Central Provinces.

Another disadvantage inseparable from the system is its tendency to create antagonism between managers and inspecting officers, and so between managers and the Department as a whole. When the grant is undetermined beforehand and depends on the proceedings of a day or two, it may be of an hour or two, and when it is naturally the desire of the manager to obtain as much as possible for the improvement of his own institution and the desire of the Inspector to save as much as possible for the development of education elsewhere, it is little likely that the same view will be always taken as to the suitability of the questions put or as to the value of the answers given. Sympathy and good feeling may do much, and have done much, to lessen the friction that must in this way be created; but it must be reckoned as no slight drawback to the advantages of the system that when teachers and Inspectors come officially in contact, they are necessarily representatives of conflicting interests.

Again, the system requires for its universal application a very large inspecting agency, though this disadvantage counts for little when it is only applied to elementary schools. An examination of individual pupils in reading, writing and arithmetic, can be got through with sufficient accuracy and certainty in a comparatively short time. When the examination includes higher subjects, not only is there much greater room for perfectly honest difference of opinion as to the value of answers, and therefore greater probability of unpleasant and harmful collision of the opposing interests, but much thought and time are needed if, the Inspector is even to satisfy himself as to the justice of his decisions. Thus, as the system is applied to more and more advanced classes, there is a constantly increasing danger either of injustice being done to pupils and consequently to schools, and of all private effort being in this way fatally discouraged, or of so many inspecting officers being employed that an excessive proportion of the small sum allotted to education must be spent on merely testing the results of instruction. The system runs some risk also of

giving rise to an unhealthy relation not only between managers or teachers and the **Department**, but also between teachers and their pupils. Pupils may come to feel that they have it in their power, by absenting themselves from the inspection or by doing badly at it, not only to bring discredit on their instructors, but in some degree to interfere with their material comfort. The danger of such an idea being acted on by mere children is practically inappreciable, but in the case of boys more advanced in age it is not altogether imaginary. The mere possibility of such a result is no slight evil.

Again, this system has sometimes been supposed to imply less intrusion than any other into the details of school management, and so to be fitted to encourage aided education by securing its free development. This view, together with the admitted advantages of the system, have often attracted favourable attention towards it. But in the opinion of a large majority of our number, such a view cannot be entertained. If there is to be any uniformity or accuracy in inspection, a definite course and definite standards must be laid down; and even if managers of aided schools are consulted, the final authority in laying them down must be the Department. Thus one of the most important things about a school, namely, its course of instruction, is largely taken out of the hands of managers. Variety may be allowed, but its limits are fixed by an authority external to the school; and whatever changes the managers may wish to introduce beyond these limits can be made by them only at a pecuniary sacrifice. And even as regards methods of instruction, discipline, and cognate points of internal economy, an Inspector who holds strong views, as able and earnest officers for the most part do, can hardly help moulding a school, however unconsciously, into the form that he prefers, if his duties require him to inspect it frequently. When the money-power that he wields is added to the power legitimately arising from his position and experience, his influence is in danger of becoming to ordinary managers practically irresistible. The Inspector may thus become, to all intents and purposes, the supreme authority in the management of the school; and instead of displaying that variety which is inseparable from independent life, aided institutions may become mere fac-similes of departmental institutions. This disadvantage of the system, like some of the others, is likely to be most conspicuous whenever inspection is frequent, and in schools of the higher order. There is little difference of opinion as to the management of elementary instruction, and little room or need for variety in the types of elementary schools. But the higher we ascend in the scale of education, the more essential it becomes that each institution, under whatever management, should live its own independent life, subject only to general supervision and control. In higher education private effort has little chance of really or permanently flourishing, unless managers and head masters feel that they are the ultimate authority within their own domain. It is only right to add that, in the opinion of one of our colleagues who has had long experience of the administration of this system in Bombay, this disadvantage has not been practically felt in that Province, where examinations for grants are held only biennially.

But perhaps the chief disadvantage of the system is its making examinations the main object of the thoughts alike of pupils and of teachers, and thus tending to give entirely false views of the meaning and purpose of education. Examinations there must be under any system, but they need not be made the pivot on which it turns. When they are so, the teacher is all but com-

fer the sake of speedy results, to direct attention to questions likely to test the intellectual food and discipline that are most required of the pupil on his part is led to regard the passing of examinations as

the main object of education, and the power of reproducing information as the highest aim of intellectual culture. Such tendencies are already too strong, apart from the stimulus that a system of payment by results must give them, and anything that encourages them should be discountenanced as fatally lowering the whole tone of education.

464* The Results System: Defects in its Rules.—In the details of the Result Grant Codes there are various defects to which our attention has been directed. Most of them, however, are comparatively unimportant, and require local knowledge to deal with properly. These will be noticed under the head of the complaints made by witnesses or in memorials. For remedying these defects, so far as they are well grounded, we are disposed to rely on a Recommendation which we shall make at a later stage for the revision of all rules for grants-in-aid. There are, however, two points which we think it advisable to notice here. We have already spoken of the danger under the results system of all schools being cast in the same mould, and especially of the same course of instruction being practically imposed on all. The danger will be partly obviated if the Codes make provision, as is done in the Madras Code, for a considerable choice of subjects, from which managers may make their own selection at the examinations for the various standards, especially the higher standards. We therefore recommend *that in schools aided on the results system, variety in the course of instruction be encouraged by grants for special subjects*. This, however, does not wholly meet the necessities of the case. Able and energetic managers will often have ideas of their own; and if private effort is to be developed to the full, these are the very men who should be specially encouraged,—so long at least as their ideas do not run wholly counter to those of the State and of the Department. As a particular example to which we have already referred in speaking of secondary instruction, there is room for much difference of opinion as to the language that should be employed as the medium of instruction for pupils who are learning more languages than one. For instance, some would teach history or mathematics through the medium of English at a stage when others would employ the vernacular. This is exactly the kind of question that managers, rather than the Department, should freely determine according to their own views of what is suitable in their own circumstances. We therefore recommend *that greater latitude be given to the managers of aided schools in fixing the course of instruction and the medium through which it is conveyed*. The Recommendation is necessary under all systems of grants-in-aid, but it bears particularly on this one.

465. The Results System: Summary.—We have shown that many of the disadvantages of this system are at a maximum in the highest and at a minimum in the lowest stages of education. In balancing its advantages and disadvantages much seems to us therefore to depend on the stage of education to which it is applied. In the lower stages we consider the balance to be decidedly in its favour, and under the head of primary education we have already recommended that, “as a general rule, aid to primary schools be regulated to a large extent according to the results of examination,” thereby approving of the system as a whole, but not desiring even at that stage to interfere with any well-considered plan for somewhat modifying it. As higher stages are reached, the system becomes less advantageous, and also less necessary because trustworthy management is more easily procured. The exact point where the disadvantages of the system begin to outweigh the advantages is a question to be decided by each Province for itself, and we are far from desiring to condemn any mode of giving aid that may have adapted itself to local wants, even though it may not commend itself to our judgment on theoretical grounds. We

are satisfied, however, that the Hue should be drawn at any rate below colleges. No association or committee that has undertaken and is able to conduct a college should be subjected to the troublesome checks that this system imposes. There is also very special need that managers of colleges should know the income on which they may confidently count. We can scarcely conceive of a college springing up under this mode of aid, though colleges previously existing may accept it as a means of supplementing to some extent resources that they already possess. We therefore recommend *that the payment-by-results system be not applied to colleges*. We should wish to see the line drawn considerably lower, but refrain from recommending that this be done simply because we are reluctant to appear to dictate upon questions which by another Recommendation we leave each Province to decide for itself.

466. The Combined System.—This is the name applied in Madras to the mode in which aid is given to some of the schools conducted by Local Fund and Municipal Boards, and to some of the schools aided by these bodies. In the case of the former, the teacher receives in the form of a monthly salary a certain fraction—a half perhaps or a third—of what is regarded as fair remuneration for his services. Instead of the remaining fraction, he receives a proportion of the grants the school may earn; this proportion being so calculated that, with fair success, he may count on drawing, when the grants are paid, a sum that will bring up his yearly income to what is considered adequate. For example, if his services are valued at Rs. 20 per mensem, he may receive a monthly salary of perhaps Rs. 10, and his share of the yearly grant is so calculated that, with average success at the inspection, he may get Rs. 120 when the grants are paid. But if the success of the school is greater or less than a fair average, he receives a larger or a smaller sum than Rs. 120 as the case may be. Thus maintenance is secured to him, and for anything beyond maintenance he is dependent on the results of his own diligence and activity. In schools that are aided upon this system, the sum likely to be obtained as a result grant is sometimes advanced by monthly instalments. When the inspection is held and the result grant determined and paid, the manager receives any surplus over the total of the monthly payments already made, or makes up the deficiency if that total is in excess of the amount that has been earned. The system is as yet little more than tentative. No Code for it has been promulgated, and its details are different in different Districts. It seems, however, if judiciously administered, to be well adapted for primary schools, uniting as it does something of the stability of the salary-grant system with the advantages peculiar to the system of payment by results.

467. The System of “Fixed Period” Grants,—This is commonly known as the “Bengal System” and is applied to colleges and secondary schools through the whole of Northern and Central India, to all classes of schools in the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab, and in a somewhat modified form to the primary schools of Assam. Its main features are, that the grant is settled for a term of years,—in Bengal generally five,—and its amount determined by a conjunct view of all the circumstances and wants of the institution aided. The points taken into account in fixing the amount of grant are such as these: the strength and expense of the teaching staff and establishment, the accommodation, the probable efficiency and pecuniary resources, and the situation of the school, whether in a populous, prosperous and advanced District where considerable fees may be levied, or in a less progressive locality where the amount based in fees must for a time be small. It is provided that the grant shall in

the income of the school from other sources; and in Bengal the points to be attended to in fixing the amount are down. Thus

*□,SWB

the grant to a middle school may not, except in certain specified Districts, exceed two-thirds of the income from private sources, that is, two-fifths of the entire expenditure. The grant to a high school may not exceed one-half of the income from private sources, that is, one-third of the entire expenditure, or the grant to a college one-third of the income from private sources, that is, one-fourth of the entire expenditure. The highest rate of aid contemplated, *viz.*, one-half of the entire expenditure, may be given only to primary schools, Normal schools, female schools and middle schools in certain backward Districts. If the subscriptions or other local resources fall off, the grant is diminished in the same proportion. The results of examinations and other tests of efficiency begin to be taken into account after a school has been for some time aided. If these are unsatisfactory, or if the Inspector reports that the pay of teachers is allowed to fall into arrears, that attendance is irregular or discipline bad,—in short, that the management has proved itself to be inefficient, the grant may be reduced or even withdrawn at any time. Allowance is of course made for anything unsatisfactory that is clearly due to causes over which managers have no control, and the aim is rather to restore to efficiency a school that has fallen off than still farther to depress it by cancelling or lessening its grants. But the power of depriving it of aid makes the control of the Department efficacious. In Bengal it is also provided, with the view of securing efficient instruction, that any teacher appointed by the managers must be approved by the Department. When the five years or other term agreed on has elapsed, the grant is revised; and in Bengal at least, where self-support is increasing and new schools which stand in need of aid are continually springing up, it is commonly reduced upon revision.

468. The “ Fixed Period ” System: its Advantages—The great advantages of this system are its simplicity and elasticity. No elaborate Code is necessary. Managers have only to state their case fully, and if they may learn the amount of aid they can rely on, without having to wait until their pupils have passed an examination, as in the system of payment by results. Under this system, also the grant to the actual wants of the school with an ease and precision which are unattainable under a detailed Code. Also it is possible to reduce the grant to a school that can thrive with lessened aid far more easily than under any more rigorously defined system, where no reduction of aid is possible without apparent or real infringement of the general rules laid down. Besides this, the system, if fairly and steadily administered, secures stability as much as the salary grant system, and like it avoids the risk of placing managers and inspectors in antagonism. It avoids also most of the other risks, enumerated above, which constitute such serious drawbacks on the system of payment by results.

469. The “ Fixed Period ” System: its Disadvantages—The system has sometimes been alleged to hold out an inducement to false statements on the part of managers. No doubt when subscriptions or other local resources fall off, unscrupulous managers may yield to the temptation to conceal the fact, and may thus continue to draw a larger grant than they are entitled to by the rules* But if private effort is to be enlisted at all in the work of education, some trust must be reposed in managers; and where trust is reposed, it may from time to time be abused. We believe that where the system has been brought into working order and inspection is efficient* abuses of this kind are not more common than under other systems or in other affairs of life* The main disadvantage of the system is one that is hardly separable from its distinguishing advantage of simplicity and elasticity. We

refer to its **largely** arbitrary character. Under it, the power of the Department in giving or refusing aid is scarcely subject to any practical limitation. Every thing depends on administration. If the administrators be fair and sympathetic towards private effort, all goes well; but if otherwise, it must be extremely difficult for private managers to obtain redress. The view taken of the whole circumstances and wants of a school is necessarily in the last resort the view of the Department; and if that should in any case be biased, there is no definite standard to the test of which it can be brought. It is noteworthy, however, that in Bengal, where the system is applied on the most extensive scale, complaints are upon the whole conspicuous by their absence. Still the disadvantage exists and may at times give rise to practical abuse. It would help to place private effort in a secure position if the reasons for any refusal of aid were definitely stated. If real injustice has been done to managers who are dissatisfied with the decision of the Department, at least public opinion would be brought to bear. We therefore recommend *that every application for a grant-in-aid receive an official reply, and in case of refusal that the reasons for such refusal be given.* This Recommendation should be regarded, however, as applying under all systems of grants-in-aid.

Again, it seems possible that the Department may be so interested in the success of one of its own schools, or in the success of some school under private management, as to refuse aid to a new school which may possibly interfere with such success, though a wider view of the true interests of education might lead to the new school receiving aid. Even in Bengal such cases have occurred. We therefore recommend *that the proximity of a departmental or of an aided school be not regarded as of itself a sufficient reason for refusing aid to a non-departmental school.* The Recommendation is one that may be needed under any system, but it provides against a danger to which this system seems specially exposed.

Another disadvantage of the system, as compared with that of salary grants, is that it gives little security for the efficiency of teachers, and has no strong tendency to improve their quality as years pass on. The provision in force in Bengal, requiring all teachers on their appointment to be approved by the Department, may meet the difficulty in some degree, provided the general superiority of certificated men be steadily kept in view and practically impressed on managers; but it does not appear that even this precaution is observed in the other Provinces where the system is adopted.

470. The "Fixed Period" System: Defects in its Buies.—A system in which so much depends on administration and so little upon rules has necessarily few inherent defects; and complaints bearing on administrative details will be dealt with in a subsequent section of this Chapter. But when statements as to the wants of a locality and the probable resources and prospects of a school have to be made by applicants for grants, and then inquired into, weighed, and decided on by officials who have possibly little local knowledge and who therefore hesitate to recommend or sanction a grant for a term of years on the mere report of the local inspecting officer, there seems greater temptation to delay than where the conditions of aid are more definitely stated. We think it well to point out the desirability of making the process of obtaining a grant for any school as short and simple as circumstances admit. Private effort that might have helped to extend education has sometimes been lost through pure delay.

In connection with the defects of the system under consideration, it is difficult to avoid inquiring whether its failure to create a single aided college in Bengal, where private effort has done so vast a work at all other stages of education, may not have some connection with the fact above referred to, of grants

to colleges being restricted to one-fourth of their entire expenditure. In Madras, where so many aided colleges have sprung up, the grant was formerly one-half, though with the increase of self-support it has now been reduced to one-third, of the salaries of all instructors qualified according to the rules. The question may fitly engage the attention of those possessed of local knowledge who may be consulted in the general revision of the grant-in-aid rules which we shall subsequently recommend.

471. The "Fixed Period" System: Summary.—This system has been objected to on the ground that it does not strictly comply with the provisions of the Despatch of 1854, that grants are to be made for specific objects and not for the general expenses of the school. On the other hand, the system has worked well for many years, and has received the repeated approval of the Secretary of State. Under it everything depends on fair and painstaking administration by officers who are earnestly desirous of promoting private effort. If this indispensable condition be secured, the system is well fitted to promote secondary and collegiate education.

472. The System of Capitation Grants on the average monthly Attendance.—This system is applied in Bengal to some girls' schools. The rate is 4 annas a head, but the total grant must not exceed Es. 10 per mensem. This system is in force only for those girls' schools which are attached to boys' schools, and in which the teachers employed in the latter instruct the girls at special hours in addition to their ordinary duties. The system may be useful in such cases, but is obviously unfitted for anything beyond what may be called the pioneer stage of education.

473. Special Grants.—Such are the systems under which grants are given in aid of the constant expenses of schools maintained by private effort. Additional grants are offered in all the Provinces on account of special expenditure that is incurred from time to time. Thus there are provisions for aid in the erection of school-buildings and the purchase of their sites, in the supply of furniture, scientific and gymnastic apparatus, books for libraries, and maps. Under the *te* fixed period⁵⁵ system, outlay upon libraries is included among the ordinary expenses taken into account when the regular grant is determined. The rules for building-grants are in some Provinces tolerably definite, but those for other occasional aid are for the most part vague, and seem to have been of little benefit to managers. In Madras, for example, grants for libraries may be given "at such intervals as the Director of Public Instruction may consider expedient"; but hardly any effect has been given to this rule. In our Chapters on Secondary and Collegiate Education we have pointed out the need of aiding in the formation of libraries for all the more advanced institutions.

474. Systems of Grants-in-aid summarised.—In thus reviewing the various methods in which aid is granted, we have called attention to some of the leading advantages and disadvantages of each, and while avoiding all suggestions of revolutionary change in any system which has grown up in a Province and which may be presumed to be suited to its wants, we have yet adverted to some defects in the details of each. With regard to some of these defects, we have made special recommendations. For others we propose a remedy of a more general kind. It seems to us to be one of the essential conditions of due encouragement being afforded to private effort, that the rules according to which aid is given be fairly satisfactory to those who already are, or who are likely to become, managers of aided institutions. We do not of course mean that their views are to be accepted without criticism, but their voice should

be a potent one in settling the terms on which private parties are invited to help the State in educating the people. A system may look admirable on paper, but if it is unacceptable to those whom it directly affects, the amount of voluntary effort evoked by it must be small. It is those who have long been working under the systems as they are, or who being engaged in educational work have still remained outside those systems, that can best suggest remedies for the defects which we have not provided against by specific Recommendations. They may also be able to point to further improvements in detail which will still further encourage aided effort and contribute to a wider extension of the means of education. We therefore recommend *that with the object of rendering assistance to schools in the form best suited to the circumstances of each Province, and thus calling forth the largest amount of local co-operation > the grant-in-aid rules be revised by the Local Governments in concert with the managers of schools; and further that in this revision the rules be so defined as to avoid any ambiguity as to the amount and duration of the aid to which an institution may be entitled, the conditions of grants for buildings, apparatus and furniture being clearly stated ; and that special reference be had to the complaints that have been made against existing systems, particularly the complaints dealt upon in this Report.* We believe that such revision will do much to remove any obstacles that private enterprise may have encountered in the past, and to secure for it a wide and constantly growing field of usefulness in the future. The complaints mentioned in the last Recommendation are not only the defects already touched on, but those we shall afterwards enumerate when we come to deal with the main points brought before us in the evidence and memorials. On some of these last we shall express our own opinion; but all complaints alike should be carefully weighed in every Province by representatives of the Department on the one hand and of private effort on the other. Even complaints not wholly justifiable may sometimes point to improvements that may be wisely introduced into the revised Code of rules.

475. Further Recommendations —Certain general principles, besides those already stated, should be clearly and steadily kept in view by those entrusted with this revision of the grant-in-aid rules in the different Provinces. Some method may be discovered of applying them under any system. We shall state them in the form of Recommendations. We accordingly recommend *that while existing State institutions of the higher order should be maintained complete efficiency wherever they are necessary, the improvement and extension of privately managed institutions be the principal care of the Department.* It is far from our wish to deprive any District of any existing means of education that it may require; and as there are many localities where the place of departmental institutions that are much required cannot yet be supplied* by private effort, we think it necessary to state that such institution should not only be maintained, but maintained in full efficiency. At the same time it is not less the true interest than it is the avowed policy of the State that private effort be increasingly relied on for supplying the means of all general education in its higher stages. The rules should therefore be such as to make it clear that to evoke, guide, and strengthen private effort is the object to which the main attention of the Department should always be given.

We also recommend *that > in ordinary circumstances, the further extension of secondary education in any District be left to the operation of the grant-in-aid system, as soon as that District is provided with an efficient high school, Government or other, along with its necessary feeders.* We consider it expedient that every District should have at least one high school. In any District where private effort has not yet established such a school and. where there is no reason-

able prospect of its doing so, we consider it legitimate for the Department to supply this amount of the means of secondary instruction for a time. Beyond this minimum provision no direct departmental effort should be made in the field of secondary education ; but the rules should be such that private enterprise may not find it too hard a task to afford such extension of secondary education as the good of the community may require.

Further we recommend *that it be a general principle that the grant-in-aid should depend—*

(a) *on locality,—i.e., that larger proportionate grants be given to schools in backward Districts ;*

(5) *on the class of institutions, i.e., that larger proportionate grants be given to those in which a large amount of self-support cannot be expected, e.g., girls' schools and schools for lower castes and backward races.*

The Bengal or "fixed period"⁵⁵ system is the only one that directly recognises differences in the advancement of localities as an element in determining the rate of aid. Under other systems greater difficulties in carrying out our Recommendation may arise," though they need not be insuperable. We believe that local knowledge will find some means of securing the necessary elasticity under any system.

Finally, in this connection, we recommend *that the following be adopted as general principles to regulate the amount of grants-in-aid, except in cases in which Recommendations for special aid have been made:—*

(a) *That no grant be given to an institution which has become self-supporting by means of fees, and which weds no further development to meet the wants of the locality.*

(5) *That the amount of State aid {exclusive of scholarships from public funds} do not exceed one-half of the entire expenditure on an institution.*

(c) *That, as a general rule, this maximum rate of aid be given only to girls' schools, primary schools, and Normal schools.*

In reference to the principle laid down in the first of these three clauses, (a), we consider it to be not less important that aid should cease when no longer needed, than that it should be given liberally when really required* It must be remembered that, with the limited sum allotted to education in any Province, [whatever is spent on one institution is so much taken away from the extension of education elsewhere, and that, however distant it may still be, self-support is the goal at which every institution should strenuously aim. An institution that has attained the honourable condition of supporting itself by the fees it raises need not cease to be connected with the State. It may still be helped by inspection if it so desire, and may still receive* when necessary, special grants for its library, its apparatus, or other occasional necessities which the fees may not suffice to cover. It may still furnish returns to the Department and remain amongst the number of "public"⁵¹ schools. But when able without aid from the State to do the work it aims at, it should not even desire such aid. It may happen, however, that a school which is self-supporting at a lower stage may need aid if it is to be raised to a higher. For example, a middle school may meet all its expenses by its fees, and yet if it is to become a high school, aid may be required. Its managers should not be refused assistance in making it a high school if one is needed to meet the wants of the locality. With regard to the second clause, (b), we would explain that scholarships awarded by the State are no portion of the grant, though they

may happen to be held in an aided institution. They are conferred upon the individual pupil, without regard to the mode in which the institution is managed at which he chooses to study, provided only it is approved by the Department. In reference to the third clause, (c), we would point out that in ordinary cases aid amounting to less than half of the expenditure of a school ought to be sufficient. With the exceptions we have noted, a school that is unable to meet more than half its outlay from local resources, including fees, should be regarded as a school for which no solid demand has as yet arisen. Cases, however, will sometimes occur where, from the unprogressive character of a District or other special cause, this statement may require some limitation. By inserting the words "as a general rule" we mean to leave room for the exercise of a wise discretion.

Most of the principles we have dwelt on have been attended to in one or other of the Codes already in force; but all should be allowed to exert a controlling influence in the revision which all the Codes should now receive.

SECTION 5.—*Sufficiency or Insufficiency of the Amount of Aid at present afforded to private Effort.*

476. Principles to be followed in determining the necessary Rate

of Aid .—It is plainly desirable to indicate in this Report how far the aid afforded to private effort is sufficient or insufficient in amount. The question, however, presents so many difficulties that it is impossible to pronounce any judgment on it with the confidence and precision that its importance undoubtedly deserves. The aid required for the full efficiency of institutions varies almost indefinitely according to the situation and other circumstances of each. A rate of aid sufficient, or more than sufficient, in one District to secure fair efficiency or even steady progress, may be quite inadequate in another. Thus, it is almost impossible to give even a general indication of what rate of aid should be given to each class of institutions in each Province; while it is quite impossible to lay down rigid rules on a question that is necessarily so complicated and so largely dependent on local peculiarities. The only approach to a principle capable of fair application to all classes of privately managed institutions, is to compare the amount of aid with the amount of public funds which the Department has found it necessary to spend in each Province on each class of institutions under its own direct management. The general efficiency of departmental institutions is universally acknowledged, and it may be presumed that there has been little or no waste of public funds in securing this efficiency. The amount required in departmental institutions by way of supplement to the sum raised from fees, endowments and subscriptions, will therefore throw some light upon the question of the amount of money which must be forthcoming in addition to that which comes in the way of self-support, if aided institutions are to be made as stable and efficient as departmental institutions for the most part are. In cases where departmental institutions enjoy exceptionally large endowments or subscriptions, this mode of calculation would no doubt lead us to assign to aided institutions a smaller amount of aid than they really require. But such cases are so few that, except perhaps in the colleges of Bombay and the North-Western Provinces, this element will not materially disturb the conclusions to which the principle will guide us. It may be convenient to illustrate the principle which we adopt by an example. A departmental institution may raise, say, 40 per cent, of its entire expense by fees or endowments, and therefore needs 60 per cent, of its expense to be supplied from public funds, if it is to be stable and efficient. It seems

safe to infer that any institution in the same District and providing instruction at the same stage, must also obtain from one external source or other at least 60 per cent, of its entire outlay, if it is to be equally stable and efficient. In the case however of the non-departmental institution, the 60 per cent, must not be expected from public funds. It is an important element in the grant-in-aid system that part of the expense of the aided institution should be provided by its managers from private resources of their own. As to the share of the total expense that should thus be provided, from private resources, no absolute rule can be laid down; nor is it possible to say what proportion of the total expenditure the State will find it necessary to afford if the institution is to be maintained. Everything depends on the ability and disposition of the managers, and on their zeal in the cause of education. Some managers will persevere in their efforts although nearly all the expense that is not met by fees be thrown on them. Others will be discouraged and will retire if the larger proportion of the deficiency left, after reckoning the fees, is not awarded to them from public funds. In a rough and general way it may be perhaps laid down, though certainly not as a rule to be universally applied, that the sum necessary to supplement the amount of self-support attained by the institution may be equally divided between the managers and the State. This can only be taken as an approximate average of what the rate ought to be. In wealthy Districts where education is appreciated, it might justly be considerably less. In backward Districts, it might with equal justice be considerably more. Thus in the case supposed, if a departmental institution, being self-supporting to the extent of 40 per cent, of its entire cost, needs 60 per cent, of that cost to be furnished by the State, it may be held that, since an aided institution providing instruction of the same grade will also require 60 per cent, of its entire cost to be supplied from without, half of this, or 30 per cent., may be reasonably expected from the State. In some cases no doubt a grant of less than half the deficiency after fees have been deducted will enable an institution to do the work it aims at, especially if it has any endowments to fall back on*; but in other cases, a grant of less than half the deficiency might result in the loss of the institution to the general system of education. The only real security that the amount of aid necessary in each case will be given depends on an earnest desire on the part of the Head of the Department to encourage private effort to the full. Still, for the purposes of this section of the present Chapter, the principle of the deficiency being equally shared between the managers and the State may be taken as a practically satisfactory guide. It may be observed that this principle would enable the State, in cases where private effort can be elicited, to secure the provision of the means of collegiate and secondary education at less than one-fourth of the expense at which such education is at present provided by direct departmental agency. We have already seen, that aided colleges and secondary schools cost on the average only half as much as similar departmental institutions. According to the general principle explained above, the proportionate rate of aid to be afforded by the State to an aided institution would be half the ratio of the State expenditure to the whole expenditure on a departmental institution of the same class. Hence the whole cost of the aided institution being one-half, and the proportionate rate of aid being also one-half, the net outlay of the State on the aided institution would be one-fourth of its outlay on the departmental institution. This, however, refers only to strictly educational funds. In the case of the aided institution, the State would further save whatever expenses are incurred on account of pensions to the teachers employed in the departmental institution, and also a large part of the expenses incurred for buildings.

As the result of these considerations, it may be held that the aid afforded is

fairly sufficient, or at least not manifestly insufficient, when it bears to the entire cost of the aided institution half the ratio which the expenditure from public funds bears to the entire cost of a similar and similarly situated institution managed by the Department directly.

477. Application of the Principle to existing Pacts—With the view of applying this principle to the rates of aid at present given, and so of determining, to the limited extent which we regard as possible, how far existing rates of aid are adequate, we have prepared a statement showing the proportion of the whole cost that is borne by public funds in the case of departmental and aided institutions in the various Provinces and at the various stages of instruction. In column 4 we briefly express our opinion of the sufficiency or insufficiency of the present rate of aid when the test we have described is applied to it.

Name of Province and Class of Institution.		Percentage of cost borne by public funds in departmental institutions.	Percentage of cost borne by public funds in aided institutions.	Sufficiency of the rate of aid in column 3, according to the principle adopted.
BOMBAY .	C Colleges (English)	81'46	2365	Inadequate.
	□ J Secondary Schools	54-25	2195	Inadequate.
	(^ Primary Schools	80-33	40-41	Apparently adequate.
	(Colleges (English)	63-66	13'21	Inadequate.
	< Secondary Schools	51'98	29*15	Adequate.
BENGAL .	(Primary Schools	85-15	27*35	Inadequate.
	C Colleges (English)	67-79	15*12	Inadequate.
	-< Secondary Schools	42*47	32*28	Adequate.
NORTH-W PROVINCES AND ODDH.	(Primary Schools	96*87	26*28	
	f Colleges (English)	7° *49	3578	Adequate.
PUNJAB .	Secondary Schools	91-13	47-46	Apparently adequate.
	Primary Schools	93*55	43'5°	
	f Colleges (English)	05*61	None.	Adequate.
CENTRAL PROVINCES.	< Secondary Schools	88*23	4* ¹¹	Inadequate.
	(, Primary Schools	86*87	37'48	
	C Colleges (English)	88*90	None.	Adequate.
ASSAM; .	< Secondary Schools	87*26	51*22	Apparently adequate.
	{ Primary Schools	89-10	45*62	Adequate.
COORG	f Secondary Schools	53 4	39*82	Apparently adequate.
	\ Primary Schools	100*	64*19	None.
HAIDARABAD SIGNED TRICTS.	f Secondary Schools	86-63	56*41	Apparently adequate.
	\ Primary Schools	88-52	None.	Inadequate.
AS- DIS-	/ Secondary Schools	98-23	21*93	
	V Primary Schools	91*81		

In this statement we have not taken Normal schools into account, because in all Provinces they are too few to afford sufficient grounds for any comparison between those under private managers and those managed by the Department; and also because we regard as legitimate any amount of aid that may be found necessary to secure the establishment of such schools by private effort, provided there be no interference with Recommendation No. 13 of the present Chapter.

478. The general Result of the Enquiry.—Thus it will be seen that according to the standard explained in the last two paragraphs, the aid at present given is in a majority of instances fairly adequate. We are however reluctant to express a decided opinion in the case of primary schools, for a reason that will be given in the next paragraph. It will be observed that in some cases our statement contains no expression of opinion. In Bengal the primary schools are insignificant in number and maintained only

in a few outlying and very backward places. They thus afford no guidance in determining the proper rate of aid for similar schools under private managers. It, therefore, becomes necessary to take other considerations into account. It will be observed that, setting aside Assam, in which, as in Bengal, the departmental primary schools are few, the Department has found it necessary to contribute from public funds to the schools under its own management a proportion of their gross outlay varying from 93*55 per cent, in the North-Western Provinces to 80*33 Per cent, in Madras. The principle we have followed would thus lead to the conclusion that the rate of aid to a primary school should be somewhere between 47 and 40 per cent, of its gross expense, and certainly not so low as 26*28 per cent., the average proportion in Bengal. Again, the grants actually given in other Provinces vary from 64*19 per cent, of the total expense in Assam, to 21*93 per cent, in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts; and this last, and even the more liberal rate of 27-35 Per cent. in Bombay, we have pronounced inadequate. Moreover in Assam, which of all the Provinces is most closely connected with Bengal, the rate at which aid is given to primary schools is much the most liberal in India. Putting these various considerations together, we can come to no other conclusion than that the rate prevailing at present in Bengal is altogether inadequate to secure efficiency, if judged by the standard of other Provinces. The declared attitude of the Government of Bengal to primary education should, however, not be forgotten. That Government regards its contribution to primary schools as an expression of interest in the success of the institutions maintained by the people for themselves; as a mark of encouragement to villages, teachers and pupils; and as, an incentive to them to raise within moderate limits their standard of instruction; rather than as a means to enable them to incur increased expenditure in the establishment and maintenance of their schools. It recognises a danger of Government being substituted for the village as the paymaster of the guru, with no improvement in the latter's position. At the same time the Bengal Government appears to have practically admitted the inadequacy, even under the conditions stated above, of the aid afforded to primary schools, by the steady increase of the primary grant from Rs. 4,00,000 in 1880-81 to Rs. 7,00,000 for the current year 1883-84. With regard to the aided colleges of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, it may appear that the present rate of aid is adequate; but the problem is in this case complicated by the large endowments which some departmental colleges possess, and by the special footing on which the Canning College stands. The question whether sufficient aid is given in this Province to colleges of the ordinary type under private managers, is one that should be carefully considered in the revision of the rules which we have recommended. The evidence before us appears to show that the encouragement to such colleges is at present extremely small. In the case of the colleges of Bengal also, certain special circumstances must be taken into account. The maximum grant allowed by the rules in force in that Province is 25 per cent, of the total expenditure, while the grant actually drawn is only 15 per cent., and the principle we have adopted would point to a grant of about 34 per cent. On the other hand, it must be observed that all existing aided colleges in Bengal are situated in Calcutta, where there is a large and steadily increasing demand for collegiate education, and that the fee-rates at the Presidency College are so high as to make it probable that as the number of students increases, nearly all the additional students will enter colleges under private management, which will thus receive a large accession of income. This source of income is so important that the unaided colleges of Calcutta support themselves from their fee-receipts, supplemented by the surplus revenue from their school depart-

merits, and have never applied for a grant-in-aid; and we have here an illustration of the impossibility of applying the standard which we have adopted without large allowance for special circumstances. The most probable conclusion from the facts bearing on the colleges of Bengal is that in the city of Calcutta a rate of 25 per cent, will be sufficient, but that for the country Districts of the Province, where no aided college has yet been established by private effort, the rate should be raised to 33 per cent. Setting aside the cases in which we are unprepared to express a definite opinion, it appears that the rate of aid to all secondary schools, except those of Madras, is adequate, and to those of some Provinces, especially Bengal and Assam, decidedly liberal; that the aid to the secondary schools of Madras and to the primary schools of the Punjab falls below the standard; but that the only cases in which the aid must be pronounced to be decidedly insufficient, according to the standard that we have adopted, are the colleges of Madras, Bombay and Bengal, and the primary schools of Bombay, Bengal and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts. In that aspect of the question which we are now considering, the Department cannot in other cases be justly charged with having discouraged private effort by any manifest insufficiency in the aid extended to it. That there may be individual institutions which receive less aid than they are entitled to is not impossible; but except in the cases we have noticed, the Department seems to have established a reasonably fair proportion between the support afforded to schools under private managers and the support afforded to those under its own immediate management. Whether it should have established or retained in its own hands so many colleges, or at any rate so many secondary schools, is of course a totally different question from that with which we are here concerned. It has indeed been clearly shown in the third section of the present Chapter that private effort for the provision of advanced instruction has not been encouraged or extended as it might have been; but this result we are disposed to ascribe, not so much to the insufficiency of the aid bestowed on already existing institutions, as to the absence of effort to increase their number, to the unnecessary establishment in some Provinces of departmental colleges and schools, to the distinct and strong preference given to departmental over private agency which has marked in varying degrees the educational history of every Province except Bengal, the Central Provinces and Assam, and from which, so far as colleges are concerned, even Bengal is not exempt; and above all to the public feeling which has been created in these and in other ways. In succeeding sections of this Chapter we shall advert to errors in practical administration which have discouraged private effort, and shall call attention to a variety of means by which such effort may be more extensively elicited. If those errors are corrected and those means steadily employed, we believe that, with the exceptions already noted, the present rates of aid, without being materially enhanced, may call forth a largely increased amount of private enterprise in supplying the means of education,

479* Cautions in applying the Standard employed—It must be carefully observed that we do not mean to lay down the standard which we have here employed as a rule that should be applied to any individual case. No such standard can measure the real wants of institutions, and aid should not exceed, as it should not fall below, what is indispensable for complete efficiency. The amount needed to secure efficiency must always depend very largely on local circumstances and on the class of institutions dealt with. For instance, in the case of primary schools, we should regret to see any attempt to limit aid to

the difference between the fees and the total cost. Private effort will be put forth to maintain primary schools except to secure the means of livelihood, or from motives of pure benevolence. In both cases the

limitation of State aid to the same amount as is contributed by managers from resources other than fees, would seriously check private effort. In the former class of cases it might often put an end to it. Besides, such calculations have no proper place in that system of payment by results, upon which primary education is chiefly aided. We see no reason why an aided primary school should receive only one-half the proportion of its outlay which a departmental primary school requires to maintain efficiency,—no reason in fact why the proportion of its expense that is borne by public funds should not be equal to that so borne in a departmental school, always provided that no conflict arises with Recommendation No. 13. In judging of the proper amount of aid to colleges and secondary schools, in the maintenance of which many other motives come into play, we should wish the standard we have applied to be much more decidedly kept in view. Again, with regard to more advanced institutions, much must depend on the size that classes may be expected to attain. For example, an institution for the provision of advanced education in a remote or backward District (supposing it to be one that should exist or receive aid at all), may warrantably expect larger proportionate aid than is needed by a similar institution in a great educational centre, where efficiency will naturally secure a large attendance and a corresponding income from fees. Or, again, when departmental and aided colleges are in competition, the proper rate of aid will depend to a considerable extent on the rate of fee in the departmental college. For example, in Calcutta, where the fee in the departmental college is larger by Rs. 7 a month (Rs. 12 to 5), or in Bombay were it larger by Rs. 4 a month (Rs. 10 to 6), than that which aided colleges are expected to charge, the opportunity for self-support afforded to an aided college is much greater than in Madras, where the difference allowed between the fees of the two classes of colleges is only Rs. 1 a month (Rs. 5 to Rs. 3^{^-}), and therefore the rate of aid may legitimately be less. In other towns and Districts similar local peculiarities may require to be kept in view. Thus it is only in the roughest and most general way that any such test as we have used should be employed to determine the sufficiency or insufficiency of aid. We would further remark that if the rate of aid be increased, as in the case of colleges at all events is so manifestly required, it will devolve on the Department to see that the augmented aid is well applied. The object of an enhanced grant is to extend education and increase its efficiency, not to economise the funds of managers. The fitness of managers to be entrusted with a larger share of public funds must be shown by a strengthened staff and improved appliances, and by the increased efficiency to which these will certainly lead in course of time.

480. Sufficiency or Insufficiency of Aid to Girls' Schools.—The principle we have employed to ascertain the sufficiency or insufficiency of grants generally, can be only partially applied in the case of girls' schools. In Bengal, Assam, Coorg, and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, departmental schools for girls are either wholly wanting or so few in number that no safe inference regarding the proper rate of aid can be drawn from the proportion of the total outlay which the Department has found it necessary to assign from public funds to its own schools. In the case of the remaining Provinces, it is, however, desirable to compare the percentage of the total cost that is at present supplied from public funds to the two classes of institutions. In stating the facts bearing upon this point, we think it best to take only primary vernacular schools into account. No doubt, a few aided girls' schools of a more advanced character exist, and they generally receive aid at lower rates than primary girls' schools; but these advanced institutions are so few and exceptional that it seems fairer to consider only that class of aided girls' schools which

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is by far the largest, and which most exactly resembles the schools under departmental management. The facts may be shown thus—

Name of Province.	Percentage of cost borne by public funds in departmental girls' schools.	Percentage of cost borne by public funds in aided girls' schools.	Sufficiency of the rate of aid in column 3, according to the principle adopted.
I	2	3	4
Madras .	94*80	28-59	Inadequate.
Bombay .	98-50	23'55	Ditto.
North-Western Provinces and Oad''	96*96	39'38	Ditto.
Punjab .	97*10	3854	Ditto.
Central Provinces	9873	2972	Ditto*

There can hardly be a doubt that when the Department finds it necessary to rely on public funds for nearly the whole outlay on its own schools, a rate of aid which very slightly exceeds one-third in two Provinces and falls below one-third in three, holds out small encouragement for any one to undertake the responsibilities and encounter the difficulties which are still inseparable from the maintenance of female schools. At the same time it is well to bear in mind that though the amount of self-support attainable by any girls' school is still insignificant everywhere, aided schools are generally better situated than departmental schools for raising some small portion of their expenditure by means of fees. We think it advisable to support the conclusion to which the principle we have adopted has led us with regard to five Provinces, by a Table which may help us to decide the same question with regard to the remaining four, and which contains some further useful information concerning the progress of female education.

Aided Girls' Schools (for natives only) in the years 1870-71 and 1881-82.

Province.	1870-71	1881-82	1870-71	1881-82	1870-71	1881-82	1870-71	1881-82
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras .	76,001	21,172	5,359	11,817	76,001	21,172	5,359	11,817
Bombay .	24,663	4,169	1,638	4,893	24,663	4,169	1,638	4,893
Bengal .	1,10,740	41,357	5,910	16,004	1,10,740	41,357	5,910	16,004
North-Western Provinces and Oudh \	69,396	28,855	3,610	4,865	69,396	28,855	3,610	4,865
Punjab .	4,717	21,431	8,523	5,358	4,717	21,431	8,523	5,358
Central Provinces .	152	76	1	13	152	76	1	13
Assam .	5,43*	2,341	1,132	67	5,43*	2,341	1,132	67
Coorg .	230	120	26	26	230	120	26	26
Haidarabad Assigned Districts.	732	462	99	830	732	462	99	830
^ far India	3,29,669	1,17,180	25,095	44,708	3,29,669	1,17,180	25,095	44,708

In this Table we include all classes of aided girls' schools, the few advanced as well as the many primary. Thus the percentage of aid shown is not the same as in the last tabular statement, which refers to primary schools alone. This Table shows that only where the number of girls' schools has been extremely small, has the rate of aid in any "Province ever approached the proportion of one-half the total outlay which we have approximately laid down. It further shows that the rate of aid has diminished since 1870-71, slightly in Madras, considerably in Bengal, the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab; while it has not very much increased in Bombay, and that the percentage of aid has diminished by 54 for India as a whole. In the Central Provinces the falling off shown in the Table is very great; but in 1870-71 there was but one girls' school in the Province, so that in this case there is no sufficient ground for any comparison.

Again, the rate of aid to girls' schools may be compared with the rate of aid in each of the Provinces to primary schools generally. The comparison is as follows:—

Name of Province.	Bate of aid to primary schools generally.	Bate of aid to girls* schools.
Madras .	40*41 per cent.	2 7'33 per ee Bt.
Bombay .	27'35 „	23 59 ss
Bengal .	26-28 „	3°83
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	43'5° „	37-68 ss
Punjab .	37'48 „	3179 „
Central Provinces	45'62 „	29'45 si
Assam	64'19 „	43'04 if
Coorg	56-41 „	5 2 17 ss
Haidarabad Assigned Districts	21 °93 .	63-11 38

Prom this it appears that in every Province, except Bengal (and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, in which however there are only four aided girls' schools), less proportionate aid is given to the managers of girls' schools than to the managers of primary schools generally. This is true even under the results system in Bombay, where the rates which it is possible for a girls' school to earn are double those given to boys' schools, but where owing to irregularity of attendance and the other difficulties peculiar to female education, a sufficient grant is never earned. It must always be remembered that the difficulty of maintaining an efficient girls' school is incomparably greater than that of maintaining any other kind of educational institution. In Madras, the Central Provinces and Assam, the deficiency in the encouragement given to girls' schools, as compared to other elementary schools, is particularly marked. Thus all lines of enquiry lead to the conclusion that extremely inadequate encouragement has hitherto been given everywhere to those who have come forward to assist the State in the peculiarly difficult undertaking of educating the women of India. We cannot but think that in this department of education there are grounds for special encouragement being given. If even with the limited encouragement hitherto afforded, the number of pupils attending aided schools for girls has risen from 25,095 to 44,708 in the last eleven years, we are confident that an enhanced rate of aid will produce large and beneficent results in a field in which, as we shall show in Section 7 of the present Chapter, private enterprise ought on many grounds to be particularly encouraged.

SECTION 6.— *Points suggested by the Evidence, Memorials, and Provincial Reports, as to the various Systems of Aid and their Administration.*

481. Introductory.—A large mass of facts and opinions bearing on the methods employed to encourage private enterprise in education has been laid before us. Some of these criticisms are purely theoretical; others, while based on experience, are drawn from consideration of but a narrow circle of facts, and make no allowance for opposing circumstances that are yet very obvious. Some points, also, that are prominent in the evidence we have already found occasion to deal with, as, for instance, in our discussion of the various grant-in-aid systems. Some, too, must be afterwards considered in connection with the question of closing or transferring departmental institutions. We shall therefore not attempt to record all that has been brought before us, but simply summarise such points not elsewhere disposed of as seem worth considering in the revision of the rules, under the following, general heads; (1) systems; (2) amounts obtainable; (3) conditions of aid; and (4) administration. What is here said under the first two heads must be regarded as supplementary to previous paragraphs of the Report. It must be carefully borne in mind that our assent is not implied to all, or necessarily to any, of the views expressed. We may sometimes make comments of our own; but the main purpose of this section is to give a *resume* of what has actually been advanced by those who speak from the standpoint of private effort, and thus to make clear their wants and feelings. These it is necessary to take into account, whether the complaints made are or are not well founded. Again, it should be observed that some of the arrangements complained of, as for instance certain reductions of grants, sometimes originated with, and often were sanctioned by, the local Governments, and cannot be charged upon the Department only. But from the point of view of private managers, the Department and the local Government are virtually one. It must also be borne in mind that some representatives of private effort make few complaints or none at all. Naturally, evidence of that class makes no appearance in this section, and but little anywhere in the Report. Those who have to inquire into the character and working of a system, must always give their main, if not their exclusive, attention to the charges actually brought against it. In our next section we shall endeavour to suggest remedies for so many of the complaints enumerated here as appear to us to have a solid basis.

482.— Evidence bearing on Systems of Aid.—Though there is some complaint that the rules of the salary-grant system are unnecessarily complex, the only one of the three chief systems against which, as a system, complaints are numerous is that of payment by results. We have already recommended that this method of aid be not applied to colleges, and therefore we need not recount what witnesses have advanced on that point. Besides the disadvantages enumerated in Section 4 of this Chapter, it has been pointed out how little encouragement the system gives to the setting up of new schools. It assumes that schools are already established, and have resources of some kind to carry them through preliminary difficulties. In the case of inexpensive primary schools in favourable situations, the managers or teachers may rely on fees till a grant can be claimed; but it is argued that in backward districts, where a desire for education has to be fostered* this method of giving aid holds out little inducement to establish schools. Most of the witnesses suggest that the system should be combined with some plan that will enable tethers or managers to obtain a certain amount of aid, however small, as **aMndof** fixed minimum not dependent on the results of examination. As to the details of this system, too rigid a definition of standards is generally

deprecated, as leaving no independence to teachers or managers in the choice of the sort of education they wish to give, and as mairing insufficient allowance for the varying quickness of pupils. Some witnesses go so far as to hold that the choice of subjects should rest entirely with the authorities of the school, and that Inspectors should only examine in whatever has been taught. It is certainly not unreasonable to hold with others that the same set of subjects should not necessarily be prescribed over a whole Province, and that schools in backward Districts should not be rewarded according to the same standards that are applied in the most forward. It is further held by some that the lowest standard for which grants are given is too high, so that little aid is obtainable for very elementary schools; and it is urged that this bears particularly hardly upon girls' schools, in which it is as yet so difficult to attain appreciable results of any kind. It is even said that Inspectors who wish to be practically just are sometimes led to make their examination under the lower standards more lenient than is at all desirable. There is likewise some complaint of standards being the same for girls as boys. It is contended that, considering the special difficulties of female education, a less amount of proficiency on the part of girls should be rewarded by a grant than is rightly demanded in the case of boys. There are complaints, too, of excessive strictness in the number and length of the daily attendances required of pupils. These differ in different Provinces; but it is contended that they should differ more than they do for different Districts of the same Province, and in particular that they should be so arranged as to make, in some schools, greater allowance for pupils engaged at certain seasons in agricultural labour. The complaint has also been made of the system as administered in Bombay, that it requires an excessive amount of poetry to be learned by heart, and thus increases the danger of relying too much on memory alone,—a danger to which all education in India is notoriously exposed. The subdivision of standards is also complained of, as well as the arrangement that failure in any one of the sub-heads prevents a pupil from earning a grant under the standard as a whole.

Much has been said of a danger that affects all systems, but most prominently that of payment by results as applied to primary schools—the danger of parents being led to think that the master is paid by Government, and that they may therefore withhold the fees which they have hitherto paid. There are few evils which it is more necessary to check if grants-in-aid are to do the good they ought, and few evils the prevention of which requires more wisdom alike in framing the rules and in administering them. In Bengal it is held by some that the best way to escape the difficulty is to give but small rewards to primary schoolmasters, and to pay these rewards in a lump sum once for all. In Madras it is argued, on the other hand, that by paying the grant in small sums spread over the year, the master is put in a position of greater independence, and is more likely to secure his rights in the matter of fees. This points to the risk of generalising on the experience of a single Province, and to the need of adapting systems to the circumstances and prevailing feeling of the population dealt with. To meet this danger will call for much patient enquiry on the part of those entrusted with the revision of the grant-in-aid rules of each Province.

483- Evidence bearing on Amounts obtainable—We have already expressed our opinion as to the extent to which, grants to the various branches of education maintained by private effort are sufficient on the whole, and we have laid down some general principles by which State **expenditure** on such education should be regulated. Little therefore need be said under this heading. Generally speaking, those who represent aided education regard the rates as too low. Such witnesses are of course prone

to look at the question from their own point of view and to neglect considerations on the other side: but there is a general consent that more liberal aid would be likely to produce a much more rapid development of education. It seems, however, that less discontent has been caused by the actual amount of grants than by the expansion of departmental institutions, particularly in one Province, concurrently with the withdrawal or refusal of grants-in-aid. It may not be possible to give indefeasible rights to claimants for grants-in-aid, but care should be taken to avoid even the appearance of starving the one class of institutions in order to provide for the wants of the other. Judicious distribution is probably of more importance in encouraging private effort than lavish expenditure. At this point we may notice the question raised by several witnesses, whether, in calculating the expenditure of a school in order to determine the amount of aid it should receive, something should not be reckoned for time spent in supervision as well as for time spent in teaching. In some cases the head-master of an institution draws no part of his salary from the funds of the school, because he is not one of its regular staff; yet much of its real value may depend on the time he gives to it. This element is taken into account in some Provinces, but not in others. The question is attended with difficulty, but may be suitably considered in the revision of the rules. Another complaint bearing on the rate of aid is, that general rules are sometimes so applied as to reduce the amount on which managers have counted. For example, it is said that special grants fairly earned according to the rules have been refused, on the ground that if given they would bring the grant above a certain proportion of the total outlay on the school. A refusal of aid on such grounds is calculated to discourage those who have been induced to put forth special efforts by the liberality of the offers made to them. It is to provide against this danger that we have laid down, in section 4 of this Chapter, that the general principles regulating the amount of aid should not apply to cases in which Recommendations for special aid have been made.

484. Evidence bearing on Conditions of Aid—Practice differs in the various Provinces as to the conditions on which schools are eligible for grants-in-aid, and the views expressed as to what these conditions ought to be are various, and sometimes contradictory. Thus it is held by some that grants should in no way depend on the private resources forthcoming for the support of a school. Subscriptions, it is said, cannot be relied on, and to demand them before a grant is given renders the establishment of schools in needy neighbourhoods impossible. On the other hand, it is maintained that this condition evokes private liberality, and that aid should not be given except where the reality of the desire for education has been put to this money test. Possibly the difference may be reconciled by bearing in mind the different claims of primary and secondary education on public assistance. New schools for the poor are not likely to be largely established on the basis of voluntary subscriptions. But where the education is of a higher kind, and possesses a prospective money-value, the earnestness of the desire for it may more fairly be put to this test. With regard to the condition that fees must be levied in aided schools in all ordinary cases, it has been rightly pointed out by witnesses, that if indigenous schools are to be aided it may be often necessary to recognise the custom of paying fees in kind.

* It has been also pointed out, that such indigenous schools, as well as some others which have been left more or less outside the grant-in-aid system, can never comply with the strict conditions as to a committee of management and a theoretically satisfactory staff of teachers, which some Provinces still impose on every school applying for a grant.* Native agency may sometimes work along these & management, and will probably do so more and more; but at present it tends towards methods that are simpler, if also less likely to secure per-

manent success. Some kind of guarantee for permanence is of course eminently desirable, but it need not be insisted on as a preliminary to granting aid in every case without exception. It seems better to assist, while they last, a few schools that prove ephemeral in the end, than for fear of this slight amount of waste to leave unaided a multitude of struggling institutions, which by grants of but small amount might become useful agencies for the spread of education. Simpler conditions and less strict requirements might lead many who have not yet thought of doing so to apply for aid in the Provinces in question.

Again, there are complaints of the threat at least being held out that the Department will insist* as a condition of aid, on all promotions from class to class being determined by departmental examinations. In the North-Western Provinces, the still further complaint is made that the examination by which the internal economy of schools must thus be regulated, on pain of all grants being withheld, is badly arranged and badly conducted. "We have dealt with this point, however, by a Recommendation under the head of secondary education. In Madras, the question is much discussed how far the employment of certificated teachers should be required as the condition of a grant under the system of payment by results. If the only object is to secure the most rapid spread of education, the less interference the better with the internal economy of those schools which are able by any instrumentality to pass a fair number of their pupils. If the object be to raise the standard of general efficiency, the employment of certificated teachers may not unreasonably be insisted on. On the one hand, to secure well-qualified teachers is an object that should never be lost sight of. On the other, there is obvious danger in making the employment of such teachers a condition of aid too absolutely or too soon. It will require both skill and patience to reconcile the claims, which are to some extent conflicting, of the more rapid spread and the efficiency of primary education. Again, complaint has been made of the practice of connecting with education having been made indispensable to the bestowal or continuance of a grant. It has, for example, been extra-judicially insisted on as a condition of aid in one Province that managers must hold themselves responsible for seeing that their pupils have been successfully vaccinated. However laudable the object may be, this is a confusion of educational with hygienic regulations which seems wholly out of place in a system intended to encourage private enterprise. The fear has been expressed that conditions of aid still more objectionable may be laid down by Local and Municipal Boards, and the need has been much insisted on that such conditions shall be fixed by Government and not by the Boards, and that an appeal shall lie to the Department if, in any case, the conditions fixed by Government are not observed. On this point we shall speak more fully under its proper head. Some witnesses would make it a condition of aid that no religious instruction should be given in an aided school, or at least that if given it should be **entirely** separated from the ordinary course. In view, however, of the declaration of the Despatch of 1854 that the system of grants-in-aid is to be based on "an entire abstinence from interference with the religious instruction conveyed in the schools assisted/" and of the instruction to Inspectors in that Despatch that "in their periodical inspections, *no notice whatsoever* should be taken by them of the religious doctrines which may be taught in any school," this proposal need not be discussed. One aspect of the question also will be taken up when we come to speak of the future prospects and development of the system of aiding private effort.

Among enquiries bearing on conditions of aid, few have been more prominent than the question whether a school maintained for the profit of its manager, or, as it is sometimes called, "a private adventure" school, is to

receive aid. Most Provinces have practically settled the question in the affirmative so far as elementary schools are concerned. As regards higher institutions, the point has attracted most attention in the Province of Bombay. In the action taken hitherto, the Local Government and the Department appear not to have adequately distinguished schools maintained with a view to ultimate profit from schools actually making profit. Also in a Despatch from the Secretary of State to the Government of Bombay (No. 9, dated 31st March 1868), the great difference between the claims to assistance of these two classes of schools seems not to have been made sufficiently clear. At present the rule appears to be that only schools which are actually self-supporting by means of fees are definitely excluded from receiving grants-in-aid ; but in times of any financial pressure there has perhaps been too much disposition to believe that schools by which the proprietor hoped to make a profit some day were actually a source of gain to him already. Some of the witnesses have pointed to this as one of the chief reasons why private effort, and particularly native private effort, bears so small a share of the burden of education in the Bombay Presidency. There is no reason why schools which aim at becoming self-supporting, or at becoming more than self-supporting, should be refused aid while they really stand in need of it. The plea of want of permanence cannot be advanced in the case of schools that have been maintained, and maintained in great efficiency, for many years even without a grant; and the plea of their having no managing committee, which has sometimes been brought forward, is equally invalid in face of the express declaration of the Despatch of 1854, that the local management to be considered adequate may be that of " *me* or more persons." On the other hand, aid must be limited by Recommendation No. 13 of this Chapter, that grants shall not be given to schools that have become self-supporting by means of fees. Grants are meant to spread education, not to put money into the pockets of managers, whether they be one or many, after all the legitimate wants of the school have been supplied. But when a school maintained for profit needs help in order to increase its efficiency or extend its operations, it should certainly be allowed to share in the assistance that the State is able to afford. It may be difficult to apply this principle to individual cases, but the principle itself is clear.

485. Evidence bearing on Administration—The most numerous and important complaints brought before us in the evidence and memorials, refer to the practical administration of the different systems of aid. Thus it is stated that in some Provinces the plan of evoking private effort has not yet been fairly tried. The very first step towards the success of the plan is to make the rules under which aid is offered thoroughly known to those whom the State invites to help it in the work of education. Even this, it would appear, has not been always done. In the Punjab at least, care has not been taken to have the rules effectually published, or even translated into the vernaculars. It is not surprising therefore, especially in a Province where English thought and English customs have as yet affected the community so little, that almost the only persons who have responded to the appeal of the State have been the Missionaries. It is stated, too, that even when an application for a grant has been made strictly according to the rules—which owing to the complexity of the rules in some Provinces is not always an easy matter—the delay before an answer comes operates as a great discouragement. In one Province the process to be gone through in obtaining a grant is said to be so complicated, that it cannot well take less than six months, and often does take considerably

xmm- In connection with this subject we must notice the very numerous and
of tlate a.ixd complexity of returns required from

the managers of aided schools. In some Provinces it is declared that the trouble entailed by these returns is almost more than the grants are worth. The burden seems to be steadily growing as new administrators devise new forms to be filled up, and even men of European experience and culture are said to be occasionally unable to understand what it is that they are required to state. If so, such requirements must be a real obstacle to the extension of aided education in the hands of local bodies and native gentlemen. It is not only the waste of time that is objected to, but the inevitable tendency of such a system to cast all schools in the departmental mould, and to bring them practically under the immediate management of the Director of Public Instruction. Complaints have been made that grants are given to Missionaries, when in similar circumstances they are refused to native bodies. It is certainly true that in some Provinces too little encouragement has been held out to the latter, but it does not appear that there has been anywhere, for many years, a deliberate refusal of aid to any particular class of effort. It is said also, that grants have been given to mission schools set up in the neighbourhood of other schools under private managers, but not to those in competition with Government schools. Missionaries make a similar statement as to aid being given to schools in competition with their own, but not to those in competition with Government schools. The complaint, in this form, is not that one kind of aided effort has been preferred to another, but that private effort of all kinds is discouraged when it competes with schools managed by the Department itself. Thus, too, in the North-Western Provinces there seems to have been a systematic reluctance to give aid to non-Government colleges, even to so signal an example of private enterprise as the Muhammadan college at Aligarh. It is added that grants have in some cases been reduced at the very time when they were beginning to produce the desired effect of making the aided institution thoroughly successful. Even a few such examples may fatally interfere with the growth of private effort. There can be no doubt that the impression prevails in some Provinces that the Department is hostile to institutions that compare at all favourably with its own.

There are similar complaints as to undue favour or disfavour being shown to one class of aided institutions as compared with another in respect of severity of examinations, and to all classes of aided institutions as compared with departmental ones. It would be a waste of time to endeavour to determine whether such accusations have any foundation in fact. Unanimity as to the fairness of an examination is hopelessly unattainable. In our view, the complaint points chiefly to the desirability of not letting aid depend in any large measure on the mere results of examining individual pupils, except in those elementary subjects as to which it is comparatively easy to form a definite and well-grounded judgment.

Connected with this subject is the complaint, which is specially prominent in Madras and the Punjab, of public examinations being so used as practically to impose the departmental curriculum and even departmental text-books upon aided schools* and thus to render the independent development of such schools impossible. It is stated, too, that by compelling aided schools to send up their pupils for tests applied throughout the whole Province, not only are children subjected to public examinations too young to bear the strain, but that an insuperable obstacle is thereby opposed to the gradual growth of that variety in the type of instruction which is essential for a civilised community with its many complex wants. In Madras there is also said to be some tendency to treat every deviation from the rules laid down in the "Standing Orders" for Government schools as *ipso facto* a defect.

From some witnesses again, though not from many, the complaint is heard

that the low rates of fees charged in departmental institutions, prevent institutions under private management from being so self-supporting as they ought to be. In the opinion of one of the few representatives of native private effort in the Punjab, the low rate of fees and the indiscriminate bestowal of scholarships in the higher class of Government institutions form one of the leading causes of the stagnation of native educational enterprise throughout the Province. The same charge is brought in the Madras Provincial Report, not against the Department or strictly departmental institutions, but against the schools maintained by Municipal and Local Boards. These also are in a special degree under the influence of the Department, and some way should be devised of so regulating the fees as to check "the general tendency to fix them very low." To use public funds as a means of keeping down fees appears to us, at all events in regard to schools for secondary instruction, to be out of harmony with the spirit of the Despatches. Nothing is more important, in the way not only of encouraging private effort, but also of diminishing the amount of aid required, and so of economising the resources of the State, than to make fees as high as it is possible to make them without injury to education. Schools that are most closely connected with Government, as being naturally the strongest and most stable, must lead the way.

Another defect in administration to which attention has been called, is that of delay in the payment of grants after they have become due. It is in evidence that in one case a manager who has charge of a large number of schools had not received in October 1882 grants to the amount of Rs. 6,000 that were due to him for the previous year. Several witnesses have made similar complaints, though it may be hoped that such a case as this is as rare as it is extreme.

486. Complaint of Want of Sympathy in Administration.—But the most common and most important class of complaints bearing on departmental administration is that it is unsympathetic towards private effort. This is expressed calmly by some and in emphatic terms by others; but representatives of aided education, in all Provinces except Bengal, say something that tends in this direction. The charge is no doubt vague; but it is clear that if the action of the Department has tended anywhere to make public opinion unfavourable to the policy of the Despatch of 18545 the obstacle thereby thrown in the way of evoking private effort may be very great, although intangible. One of the few representatives of private native effort in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh states that "Aided schools are looked upon by the Educational authorities as excrescences which are to be removed, and the sooner the better." He adds "they are the pariahs of the Education Department and are looked down upon with contempt. The infection has spread from the Department to the outside public, and the very name of a 'subscription' school moves a provoking smile." He mentions a friend who long maintained a school with but slender means, and yet said that he would rather let the school perish than apply to the Department for a grant, on the ground that he should not "be able to bear their scornful conduct, and their constant and harassing interference." The views of this witness are possibly extreme; but it is well to note the strength of feeling that his words indicate. If his statement as to the public opinion that has been induced by the action of the Department corresponds in the slightest degree with facts, it is needless to seek any other explanation of the grant-in-aid system having had such small success in the North-Western Provinces* None of the witnesses in other Provinces use such strong language. Still, what they say is to show that there are few Provinces in which the feeling between the

Department and the representatives of aided effort is such as we should wish to see it. Some of the latter point to facts which appear to show an indifference, if nothing stronger, to private effort on the part of some departmental officers. Thus complaints are made of departmental institutions having been opened in direct opposition to those under private managers. Cases of this kind are not numerous; but it must be remembered that even a single case, unless the ground of action was not only very strong but also very clear, must have conveyed the impression to a whole Province that the Department is the opponent and not the friend of private effort. More numerous cases have been pointed to, in which departmental institutions have been set up in places where private effort, if warmly seconded, might easily have supplied the wants of the community. Cases of this kind must leave a similar, though a weaker, impression—at least must leave the impression that the Department likes best to have institutions of its own.

An official paper has been laid before us, from which it appears that in Madras it was proposed by the Director of Public Instruction to spend Rs. 30,000 with the avowed object of transferring the secondary education of an important town, which had hitherto been chiefly provided by private effort, wholly into the hands of the Department. His successor, indeed, advised against the measure and it was not carried out. The same Director avowed it to be his policy to develop departmental education *pari passu* with that resulting from private effort; and in the opinion of many witnesses he aimed not so much at increasing both as at largely substituting the former for the latter.

Again, in proof of the want of sympathy for private effort, it has been pointed out that in few Provinces have representatives of non-departmental education been consulted on questions relating to education generally, and in few have they been invited to take any share in those examinations below the standard of the University which exert an influence upon schools at large. It must be remembered that this complaint, as well as many others, is not made in all Provinces alike. In Madras, for example, where some complaints are loud, this one is not heard. It may be, also, that the representatives of private effort are to some extent to blame for this isolation; but that they feel themselves to a large extent debarred from exerting any influence on the general current of education is plain from the evidence before us. We hope that the evil will be to a large extent remedied by Recommendations already made in Chapter VH of this Report.

Again, it appears that in some Provinces, though not in most, scholarships have been confined to departmental institutions. In one Province this was carried so far that, until after we had commenced our enquiries, scholarships were not only not tenable in institutions under private managers, but were rigorously withheld from pupils who had received any portion of their education in such institutions. Whatever may have been the intention of such rules, they seem to show that the policy laid down in 1854 had been overlooked. They could hardly do otherwise than create the belief that the Department had no active wish that private educational effort should prosper.

Again, as pointing to this want of sympathy, it is stated that rules have been laid down for aided schools which the Department never thought of applying to its own schools. For instance, in Madras the rules allow no aid for the salaries of even the oldest and most experienced uncertificated teachers, while a few such men are nevertheless retained in departmental institutions. In the same Province it is said that rules are laid down which, though excellent in the abstract, leave quite out of view the present needs of aided institutions

and the actual difficulties of their managers. For example, while the scale of grants-in-aid of the salaries of certificated female teachers is admittedly a liberal one, the fact that hardly any such teachers can at present be procured seems to have been completely overlooked. It is also asserted that, for the sake of the theory that grants should not be given for servants, the aid has been taken away which was formerly given in paying the women employed to escort girls to school—a class of agents quite indispensable at present in a well-managed girls' school. For reasons such as these, it is stated that a scheme which looks liberal on paper turns out to be far from liberal in practice.

These are some illustrations of the opinion expressed by many witnesses who speak from the standpoint of aided education, that only in rare cases has the Department discharged its duty of actively fostering private effort—that cold justice is the utmost which as a rule it has been willing to accord. It is also alleged that there has been no want of vigour in the establishment of departmental schools, and that the impression has thus been left that those who wish to be honoured by the State for interest in education, must show that interest by supporting departmental effort. One witness says that any attempt to open a school that would even appear to be a rival to a departmental one “ would be regarded not only by the officials but also by “ most of the respectable Hindu inhabitants as an act of disloyalty to Government.” Another, who is in no way connected with aided education, says that “ Government institutions are invariably the most preferred and favoured, not “ only by the State but also by all those who crave and court State favour.”⁵ And witness after witness in nearly all the Provinces declares that many native gentlemen and native associations would be ready to establish aided schools, if it were generally felt that their doing so would be approved and commended by Government and its officials.

One of the occurrences which has been pointed to as showing that private effort sometimes receives even less than justice, requires somewhat fuller statement. In 1876 some reduction of educational expenditure was considered necessary in the Province of Bombay. The grant of Rs. 70,000 per annum, or 3*1 per cent, of the entire expenditure from public funds, which had been fixed as the sum to be devoted to the encouragement of aided schools (including those for Europeans and Eurasians), had by that time been considerably exceeded. It was accordingly determined that the first step in the retrenchment should be to reduce grants to aided schools within the predetermined limits. A conference was held with some of their managers, but the only question submitted to them was how the reduction already resolved on could best be made. It is in evidence that no representatives of native private effort[^] whose claims should have received fuller consideration than those of any other class of managers, were invited even to this conference; and that as a natural result the reductions fell disproportionately on them. In the end it was determined that the result grants hitherto paid for passing the higher University examinations should be reduced by 50 per cent., and the grant for passing the matriculation examination entirely taken away. The total sum expended under the ordinary rules, that is, according to the system of payment by results, was thus reduced from about Rs. 86,000 in 1875-76 to about Rs. 78,000 in 1876-77, and to about Rs. 66,000 in 1877-78, when the reduction had taken full effect. The whole operations of aided schools were thus most seriously crippled. There is nothing to show that any reduction in the outlay on institutions managed by the Department itself was either made or attempted at the commencement of 1876, when the financial pressure was first felt, though in the sub-distress caused by famine at the close of that year, they also suffered

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largely. It is urged, however, that financial necessities were so great that “the only alternative was for Government to close, as a temporary measure, one or more of its old high schools or colleges, or else reduce the grants-in-aid of secondary education;” and that “the former course would not only have been extremely unpopular and have involved a great waste of money, but it would have been a departure from the policy of providing each District with one high school and its feeders, which was carefully considered and adopted, in the infancy of the Department.” It must be admitted that the alternative was a hard one, and that if the financial distress was so extreme as to make an annual saving of Rs. 20,000 indispensable, many arguments may be advanced in favour of the course adopted. Yet it may reasonably enough be held that the widespread discouragement of private effort was a still greater evil than any that could have arisen from crippling or even closing a few departmental schools. There can be no doubt that the action taken has left, in many quarters, the unfortunate impression that it is not desired to encourage private parties to help the State in promoting education. A representative of native effort says, “owing to the withdrawal of grants, the progress of high schools conducted, by natives has been hampered, and I don’t think that unless important changes are made, the natives of this Presidency would, find it worth their while to take a part in the education of their countrymen,^{5*}” Another representative of native effort expresses the conviction that “the procedure of the Department testifies to a distinct abandonment of the policy sketched in the Despatch of 1854, one of the primary and fundamental aims of which was to develop native enterprise in educational matters in this country.” A European manager states it as his belief that it was because the grant-in-aid system “was so suitable to the requirements of the community that after ten years’ operation Government thought it necessary to check its growth by reducing the grant or refusing it altogether.”* There may be insufficient ground for views like these, but the fact that they are entertained by those who have been most ready to respond to the State’s appeal, is of no inconsiderable importance. It is only fair to add that the result-grants had again risen in 1881-82 to a sum in excess of their amount in 1875-76, before the reduction was made.

487- Conclusion.—Such is a digest of the complaints that have been made against the systems of aid at present in force, and against the method and the spirit in which they have been administered, in some Provinces. We may repeat that we have confined our attention in this review to the evidence of witnesses who are more or less dissatisfied with the existing system, and that the main purpose of the section has been merely to notice the opinions expressed by them. We have seen, however, in section 3 of the present Chapter, that the development of education has only to a small extent followed the lines marked out in 1854; and our review appears to be enough to show that this fact is due in a considerable degree to the distinct, and in some Provinces the strong preference shown by the Department for working through officers of its own rather than by means of private agency. We shall next attempt the more grateful task of showing how the complaints that have been made, so far as they appear to us to have a solid basis, may be obviated in the future.

SECTION 7.—*Relations of private Enterprise in Education with (a) the Department, and (5) competing private Institutions.*

488- Introductory.—The review of the evidence bearing on grants-in-aid has shown that some amount of friction has existed between the Department and the independent persons and associations that have been active in pro-

moting education. This is no doubt unfortunate, but considering all the circumstances it should not be regarded as unnatural, and certainly not as irremediable. It would be contrary to all experience if a scheme so far-reaching as that initiated in 1854, should come to maturity without considerable difficulty at first. There are always difficulties in reducing general principles to detailed practice. Mistakes in applying principles may escape detection when they are made, and yet may be readily seen when the time for taking stock of what has been done arrives. Our historical review of this subject has shown that, in spite of all the difficulties and disagreements that witnesses and memorials have brought forward, the scheme of grants-in-aid has in some Provinces realised the expectations of its authors, so far as secondary and collegiate education are concerned, and that under a somewhat modified form it has been found fitted to promote both the extension and the improvement of primary education also. We have shown, indeed, that it has been comparatively unsuccessful in other Provinces ; but everywhere it has borne some good fruit, and its remarkable and constantly increasing success where the conditions have been favourable, gives encouragement to the belief that when mistakes of administration have been noted and corrected, it will do for education of every kind and in every part of India a work as extensive as beneficent. If we succeed in pointing out the best mode of reducing to practice the essential principles on which the whole scheme proceeds, all the difficulties that have arisen may come to be looked back upon at no distant date as only the obstacles and interruptions incidental to bringing into proper working order everything that is great and lasting. It has been necessary for us to recount these difficulties, not in order to exaggerate or perpetuate differences that we trust will be removed, but simply to mark out the means by which a peaceful and safe development is most likely to be secured. It must be remembered that the difficulties enumerated have shown themselves in different Provinces in very different degrees. It should not be supposed that they have all appeared in any single Province. In some Provinces, such as Bengal among the more advanced and the Central Provinces among the more backward, most of them are entirely absent. It should be noticed, also, that the very form of our enquiry has tended to make the blame for such difficulties as have arisen appear to rest on the Department more largely than has in all probability been really the case. It was plainly part of our duty to provoke criticism • and the questions put by us were therefore such as to bring to the surface every complaint that witnesses wished to make. Had educational officers been asked to prefer their complaints against the managers of aided schools, we should doubtless have had it in our power to dispense more even-handed justice, but purposes of practical utility would not have been served so well. In estimating the value of the various complaints that have been made, it is well to remember that many of them refer to such differences as must always exist among those who sincerely desire to promote the same end. The general strain of the evidence agrees with what is said by a witness who has found the very gravest fault with the educational administration of his Province : “ while the “ Director’s preference for Government schools is too strong, yet I do not think “ it would lead him knowingly to do anything unfriendly to aided schools.⁵⁵

489. The Origin of the chief Complaint .—The last mentioned witness has summed up all the mere reasonable complaints that have been made. Setting aside objections to mere details which we hope will be remedied by revising the rules for aid after full consultation with those whom they most affect, all complaints may be resolved into this,—that the Department has too *T&mk* forgotten the more important side of its two-fold responsibility. It was part, no doubt, of its duty to give direct instruction, but its chief function was that of evoking/ organising, and directing aright every educa-

tional agency that could by any means be brought to bear on the vast population of the Empire. The mistake is one for which many excuses may be offered. To most men it is more satisfactory to work through agents that are under complete control than through those who have views of their own, and who cannot be wholly prevented from giving effect to them. The work, too, of agents whose principles of action are various and whose interests must at times conflict, is not easily directed to a large and common end. And if the results of the easier method of direct departmental action are less extensive and less enduring, yet it must be admitted that in the mean time they are more plain and precise and are also more rapidly attained. Moreover, the spirit of attending to one's own more immediate duty is not unnatural. The Department was instructed to manage directly one set of schools, while it was only indirectly to control another. It could hardly be expected altogether to overcome the very natural tendency to give more sympathy and support to the former than to the latter, especially in cases where the latter were weak and backward, and not easily raised into useful models of efficient and thorough education. It could not in fact have risen at once to the level of the high position it was meant to hold, without greater breadth of view and a more confirmed habit of looking to broad results than it is safe to count on in a large and busy Department. It must, be added also that the Imperial and Local Governments, as well as the Department, have not always consistently applied the principles of the Despatch of 1854 to practice. These considerations are sufficient to show that some of the complaints we have recounted must almost inevitably have arisen. At the same time we feel it to be our duty to say that the development of private effort, and therefore the extension and improvement of education throughout India, has been greatly hindered by the extent to which the Department, not in all but in a majority of the Provinces, has failed to act steadily in the spirit of the broad and generous policy laid down for its guidance at the time when it was originally constituted. In one Province the hostility to missionary schools shown by one of the earliest Directors of Public Instruction not only checked for the time the growth of an agency which might have done much to spread education and to evoke agencies even more extensive and powerful than itself, but also exerted an influence the results of which are felt to the present day. In another Province, we cannot avoid the conclusion that impatience of the independent tone of private managers and of their boldness in asserting their rights produced a tension between the Department and the leading representatives of private effort which was allowed to prejudice the legitimate interests of aided institutions. In yet another Province the root of the difficulty lies deeper still, and may be found in a conspicuous indifference to the advantage of developing native private effort, which has stronger claims upon the State than private effort of any other kind. Lastly, in many Provinces a too exclusive interest in the superior success of departmental schools has induced the officers of the Department to favour them even at the expense of other schools and to distribute the pressure of financial difficulties unevenly over the institutions which stood to them in different relations, but were alike entrusted to their care. From causes such as these, some one or more of the conditions essential to the success of private effort have been neglected in practical administration; and to this neglect, not to any inherent defects, we attribute whatever disappointment there may be as to the results hitherto brought about by the system of grants-in-aid.

With these general remarks we pass from the consideration of the difficulties that have arisen. It will suffice if the experience of the past is used for the guidance of the future, and if those conditions are henceforward observed under which alone it now appears that the grant-in-aid system can take the place that it

was meant to hold. We shall proceed to state what we regard as the chief conditions that are necessary to the complete success of any scheme for evoking private educational effort. If these are secured for the future, we feel assured that such effort will enter upon a new era of healthy and rapid growth, and that education will be more widely spread than it could be if the departmental method of action continued to be preferred.

490. The first Condition of the Success of private Effort.—Institutions under private managers cannot be successful unless they are frankly accepted as an essential part of the general scheme of education. This may appear to have been even more than sufficiently provided for by the Recommendation already made, to the effect that^{cc} while existing State institutions of the higher order should be maintained wherever they are necessary, the improvement and extension of private institutions be the principal care of the Department.” But the way in which the Department should manifest its care for institutions, under private managers, may be briefly indicated. No desire for greater symmetry of system or for any greater hold on the education of a locality should lead the Department to establish schools in places where aided effort can be made adequate. Recommendation No. 11 at the end of the present Chapter expresses our opinion on this point. Nor should the Department wish, or even allow, the management of independent schools to be handed over to it. Cases may arise in which an independent school is languishing, and in which a desire for the advancement of education may prompt the Department to take over the management and improve the school. But if it yield to this desire, the immediate gain will be outweighed by the general belief which such action cannot fail to create that the State is able and willing to do whatever the people ought to do for themselves but will not, and by the blow that will thus be struck at the very roots of private effort. Again, if institutions under private managers are to be regarded as part of the educational apparatus of the country no less than those maintained directly by the Department, it follows that those who assist the State by managing them should have great influence in determining all questions of general educational policy. The Head of the Department must still be the controlling authority in the last resort; but if an aided institution is preferable to a departmental one when it is equally efficient, the opinion and advice of the managers of the former should be at least as carefully attended to and carry as great weight as the views of those who are intimately connected with the latter. In determining all such matters as the arrangement or conduct of public examinations, the rate of fees, the terms of admission, the course of study, or the forms of periodical returns,—in short, with regard to all that concerns the education of the community at large,—the Director of Public Instruction should be guided as much by the views of those interested in aided education as by those of departmental officers. He should employ the teachers and managers of aided schools as freely, if they so desire, as officials of the Department in carrying out what has been resolved on. The Recommendations on this point contained in Chapter V will, we hope, contribute to securing this result as well as tend to the improvement of examinations. We have decided, as has been shown in Chapter VII, that the time has not come when a representative board should be set up to control or influence the educational executive, but meanwhile a useful substitute for such a Board may be provided by free and frequent consultation between the Director and those whom the State has invited to co-operate with itself. If aided institutions are thus to have the isowbal sympathy of the Department, it follows that any success on their pppt must be as fully and warmly acknowledged as the similar success of a \ ^^@rtaa^ental institution* It follows, too, that when any changes are from ; tinae iotnae proposed, the bearing of such changes on the welfare and con-

venience of schools under private managers should be carefully weighed. It also follows that all scholarships and rewards that the State confers should be given without regard to the form of management of the institution to which a candidate belongs. For reasons such as these, we recommend *that with a view to secure the co-operation of Government and non-Government institutions, the managers of the latter be consulted on matters of general educational interest, and that their students be admitted on equal terms to competition for certificates, scholarships and other public distinctions.*

We have already intimated that in some cases too little attention has hitherto been paid to the necessity of thus securing a free field for private effort and of making the competition between departmental and non-departmental institutions fair, when other considerations render it necessary that such competition should still for a time continue. The restriction of scholarships in the Punjab to departmental institutions, of which we made mention in our last section, has indeed been recently removed; but certain similar restrictions still exist elsewhere. Recommendations 18 and 9 of Chapter VI bear on such restrictions in Madras and Bombay. Another arrangement which seems calculated to leave the impression that non-departmental institutions are not regarded as an integral part of the educational machinery is the restriction of the Dakshina fellowships in Bombay to the students of departmental colleges. We learn that there were peculiarities in the way in which these fellowships were founded, which may make it in some degree doubtful whether they should now be regarded as rewards for learning proceeding directly from the State. We therefore confine ourselves to recommending *that the Government of Bombay be invited to consider the propriety of converting the Dakshina fellowships into University fellowships with definite duties attached to them, to be for a term of years and open to all candidates irrespective of the age by which they have been trained.*

Our attention has been drawn to a similar restriction in Bengal which we desire to see removed. The Mohsin Endowment Fund, which is now under the disposal of the State though it drew its origin from a private bequest, is applied in part to the payment of the fees of Muhammadan students. For some time matriculated students thus assisted have been allowed to join any college they prefer, whether departmental or other; but scholars who have not yet matriculated are still compelled to attend departmental schools as a condition of receiving assistance in the payment of their fees. We have satisfied ourselves that there is nothing in the conditions of the bequest, or in the other circumstances of the case, that calls for the continuance of this restriction, and we therefore recommend *that in Bengal the payment from the Mohsin Fund of two-thirds of the fees of Muhammadan students, now confined to Government schools, be extended to Muhammadan students of non-Government schools approved by the Department.*

Finally, under this head, we wish to direct attention to one of the complaints that witnesses have brought forward,—that which bears on delay in the payment of grants that are admitted to be due. If the Department is to regard institutions under private managers as entitled to its fostering care as much as those managed by itself, or even more, it is obvious that it should take as much pains to secure punctual payment of the grants as it takes to prevent the pay of its own servants from falling into arrears. We therefore recommend *that grants be paid without delay when they become due according to the rules.*

491- The second Condition of the Success of private Effort—The next condition essential to the success of private effort is that its freedom be not interfered with. There should be a clear understanding that a grant is not

to be used as a means of coercing managers into adopting the views of the Department. It is no doubt conceivable, though in a high degree unlikely, that there may be so radical a difference between the views of the managers and those of the Department that the latter may judge a school to be positively injurious. In that case the grant should be frankly refused or withdrawn. To use the grant as a means of pressing the school into the mould of a departmental school is opposed to the whole principle of relying upon private effort. The personal interest and zeal which it is the very idea of the system to appeal to, is always strongest in those who have views on education to which they desire to give practical effect. If such men are to help the State they must have freedom. Any disadvantages that may be incidental to such freedom are a small price to pay for its many benefits. This condition plainly forbids all attempts to take the internal arrangements of a school, for example the promotions from class to class, out of the hands of the school authorities,—an evil which we have already dealt with in our Recommendation No. 22 of Chapter T. It forbids all modes of inspection that would treat any deviation from the model set up by the Department as *ipso facto* a defect. It forbids demanding returns so minute and full that in order to furnish them the school must be arranged precisely on the plan that the form of the returns suggests,—an evil we have tried to meet by Recommendation No. 4 of Chapter TIL It equally forbids all endeavours to impose a rigid routine of study or a particular set of text-books upon all schools. We therefore recommend *that care be taken lest public examinations become the means of practically imposing the same text-books or curriculum on all schools*. In short, the Department should let aided institutions grow after their own fashion, interfering with that growth only in cases of extreme necessity. This must not, however, be understood to mean that managers are to be subject to no authority, or that their schools may be as inefficient as they please. Control is as necessary as freedom, and control must rest with the Department. While deprecating everything that would take away power and responsibility from managers with regard to the internal economy of their schools, we would increase rather than diminish the power of the Department to secure complete efficiency. No doubt it is difficult or impossible to mark in set terms the boundary between interference with freedom on the one hand and legitimate control upon the other. But if the Department regards each school as a unit, with the internal economy of which its only concern is to see that it does well what it undertakes to do, and if it aims at making all such units mutually helpful, the problem will not be found too difficult to solve in practice,

492. The third Condition of the Success of private Effort—But if fair play is to be given to the system prescribed by the Despatch of 1854, more is required than sympathetic dealing with aided institutions already in existence and security for their freedom. Every proper means must be employed to favour the establishment of new schools in places where education is already provided by Government as well as in others. The readiness of the State to aid those who come forward to establish such institutions should be actively impressed upon the people. In any Province where the bulk of the inhabitants have never been made aware that the State is willing to aid them in establishing schools of their own, it is plain that the grant-in-aid system has never been really tried. It is true that a proper regard for its dignity prevents Government from assuming the attitude of a petitioner; but the Head of a Department entrusted with the care of education, has wide scope for encouraging private effort without loss of dignity. Public sentiment is very intangible, yet it is a thing on which much always depends. By judicious and patient effort, a Director, supported by his Government, can do much to create the feeling that the State honours those who aid it by

opening and maintaining schools. If such a feeling be once created, efforts along the lines marked out by the Despatch of 1854 will not long be wanting. Even in Provinces where private effort has not yet done much there is a promising field to work in. There are none where its prospects are at present so little hopeful as the Punjab and the North-Western Provinces; yet in the former there is a mass of evidence to show that many native gentlemen will take part in the education of their countrymen if proper means to encourage them are used; while of the liberality for educational purposes that is latent in the latter, there is ample proof in the long list of private benefactors, supplied by Babu Haris Chandra of Benares in the answers he has given to our questions. On the other hand, though grants be given to the few that ask them, yet if there be no attempt to increase the number of applications, while great care is given to the improvement and development of departmental schools, it is inevitable that the feeling should spring up of its being an act almost of disloyalty to open new schools, especially in places where education is under the direct management of the Department. Where any feeling like this exists, it is vain to count on private effort. We therefore recommend that, after care has been taken to adapt the rules to the circumstances and wants of each Province, as already recommended, *the revised rules for grants-in-aid and any subsequent alterations made in them be not merely published in the official Gazettes, but translated into the vernacular, and communicated to the Press, to the managers of aided and private institutions, and to all who are likely to help in any way in the spread of education.*

493* The fourth Condition of the Success of private Effort—Again, it is necessary, if the full development of private effort is to be secured, that the fees in all secondary schools and colleges that are managed by the Department be kept as high as possible, and higher than in aided institutions of a corresponding class. The fees in every institution should be as high as is consistent with the spread of education, in order that the drain on the limited resources of the State may be lessened, and funds set free to meet new demands. The stronger an institution is, the higher is the fee it can afford to charge. As departmental institutions are certainly the strongest in India, not only from the prestige that their Government connection gives them but from the higher efficiency which in most cases they attain, it falls naturally to them to set an example which all others ought to follow as closely as they can. This is a condition of great importance, and we have called attention to it in Recommendations No. 10 of Chapter Y and No. 10 of Chapter YI. It appears to have been nearly always fulfilled in schools and colleges managed by the Department directly, but by no means so in the town schools managed by Local and Municipal Boards, which are quasi-departmental in their character.

494. The fifth Condition of the Success of private Effort—Still another condition should be observed if private effort is to accomplish all that it is capable of. Room must be made for it as its area gradually expands. Wherever it becomes fit to do the work needed, the Department should remove its own institutions as the Despatch of 1854 contemplates. It must always be a difficult and delicate thing to settle when a departmental institution, or any particular branch of it, ought thus to be withdrawn. If such a step be taken too soon, it may propagate the idea that Government has ceased to wish that opportunities for higher education should be afforded. If delayed too long, it must propagate the equally hurtful idea that the people should depend on Government entirely, without making an effort for themselves; and any such idea is of course fatal to private effort. This condition is so important, and yet

so difficult to work beneficially and fairly, that we shall devote a separate section of this Chapter to its treatment. No more need be added here than that full encouragement to private effort demands that it be made clear by practical examples, when occasion serves, that departmental schools are not regarded as ends in themselves, but as a means of awakening such a desire for education that in course of time it may be maintained with moderate aid, and may become more and more self-supporting; though there is little ground to expect that the very highest kind of education will ever attain to complete self-support by means of fees alone. When a beginning is once made in thus withdrawing Government schools, it will be seen that the Department ought not to be regarded as a rival, but as an impartial authority that all should readily submit to. The power it will thus gain over every kind of education will be far greater than it can possibly exert if it be regarded as interested only, or interested chiefly, in the welfare of the institutions that it directly manages.

495. The sixth Condition of the Success of private Effort*—Again, it is obvious that if the system of aided private effort is to have free play, it must not only be encouraged in such ways as we have recommended, but also must be explicitly preferred to every other mode of spreading education in cases where it is the agency best adapted to accomplish the end in view;. Such a case there is in female education. Local official interest may undoubtedly do much to prepare the way for such education and to promote it; but there is little hope of its flourishing anywhere, as yet, if it be taken up in a mere official spirit. It requires everywhere the fostering care which personal interest and zeal can best provide. In this field, departmental agency should be employed only in the last resort; and it may be better to wait long for private parties to come forward than to pre-occupy the ground with departmental or semi-departmental schools. We, therefore, recommend *that the further extension of female education be preferentially promoted by affording liberal aid and encouragement to managers who show their personal interest in the work, and only when such agency is not available by the establishment of schools under the management of the Department or of Local or Municipal Boards.*

496. Further Conditions of the Success of private Effort.—Some other conditions of the success of private enterprise in education, though highly important, are difficult to define. There is one however of which it is possible to speak with precision. Private effort cannot thrive unless it can confidently rely on the continuance, so long as it is required, of whatever financial aid has been extended to it. Sudden and arbitrary withdrawals of assistance are plainly inconsistent with the prosperity of the particular institution they affect. But they do injury on a still wider scale. They cannot but leave the impression on all who hear of them, that the Department does not really favour the establishment or development of any institutions of the class. It is true that as fees are raised, State aid should be gradually diminished, and in some cases withdrawn wholly. The limited funds available are so much needed for new developments of education, that it would be a grave abuse to give aid that would leave a profit to managers, not being themselves the teachers, after the legitimate wants of their institution are provided for. This consideration renders it impossible to lay down a scale on which aid must be given in every case. Aid should be proportioned to real wants, and these must vary in various localities and circumstances. But whenever aid is to be withdrawn,

notice should be given, and full opportunity for the statement of their case afforded to the managers *before* the withdrawal is announced. And when aid is withdrawn, it should be withdrawn on some intelligible principles, and those

principles should be stated as clearly as circumstances admit in the Code of rules for grants-in-aid. Nothing can be more fatal to private effort than arbitrary treatment, such for example as reducing the amount given to a school or college without regard to its locality, its expenditure, its stage of advancement, or any of its special circumstances. As the expense of an institution increases, the aid given to it should increase proportionately, provided always that its increase of expenditure be legitimate, and that strenuous efforts are put forth to make it as self-supporting as possible. Now if the principle thus enunciated be sound, it follows that this provision for grants-in-aid should not be limited to a fixed sum. Its steady increase should be expected and provided for. Something may be done to meet this increasing outlay by the gradual transfer of departmental institutions to the management of private bodies, and by the gradual withdrawal of aid as other institutions become more and more self-supporting by means of fees. But if private effort, aided and controlled by the State, is to be trusted to as the main agency for providing higher education, then as such education spreads, the demand for aid will increase too rapidly to be altogether met in this way. If there be no elasticity in the assignment for grants-in-aid, when any financial pressure comes the Department may have to face such an alternative as was presented in Bombay, where, as we have shown, it became necessary either to reduce grants suddenly and so to discourage all private effort or to cripple or close departmental schools in places where such action might throw education back for many years. Such an alternative may be again presented unless the provision for grants-in-aid be kept, at any rate, abreast of the demands likely to be made on it. We, therefore, recommend that a periodically increasing provision be made in the educational budget of each Province for the expansion of aided institutions.

497- Summary.—The conditions thus stated must be in some fair degree if private effort is ever to take the place of the Department. Many of them have undoubtedly been wanting in some Province and to whatever extent they have been wanting, we must hold that the system has not yet been fairly tried. There can be no doubt that the Despatch of 1854 intended secondary and collegiate education to be largely provided by aided private effort; and the Despatch of 1859 expresses the hope that the former would at some future date be exclusively so provided. The time for depending upon private effort alone has not yet arrived, but progress towards it has been made; and progress towards it may be much more rapid in the future if suitable means are used. The two systems of aided private and of departmental effort may co-exist, and indeed must co-exist for a time. In fact, from the chief departmental colleges we have come to the conclusion that it is premature for Government to consider the propriety of withdrawal. But in the very nature of the case, one system must be steadily developing and the other steadily diminishing. All considerations tend to show that of the two systems private effort is the one that should increase, and the direct agency of the Department the one that should diminish. In all our Recommendations we have therefore kept the principle in view, that the main attention of the Department should be given to evoking and strengthening private effort, and that its success must be largely judged by the increase in the number and efficiency of aided or self-supporting institutions under private management that has resulted from its care,

498- Relations of private Enterprise to competing private Institutions.—Little need be said as to private effort in competition with other private effort. This is a matter in which there is not much that can be usefully done. What little the Department is called on to effect in the way of regulating such

competition and making it fair and healthy, has been touched on in Chapter YIL But the chief educational problem of the day is how to multiply the agencies at work. The field is more than wide enough for all, though in a few special centres there may be some excess of competition. The time may come when it will be one of the chief duties of the Department to reconcile conflicting claims, and to repress effort that is not required. But such a time is still distant. It is sufficient in the mean time if the Department prove itself so cordial in encouraging private effort of every kind that all the agencies at work will naturally invite it to act the part of an arbiter in whatever difficulties may occasionally arise.

SECTION 8.—Relations of private Effort with Local and Municipal Boards.

499- Introductory.—The functions of Local and Municipal Boards have already been discussed in connection with the primary schools that are or may be entrusted to them, and we shall return to the subject in Chapter XI. Here we shall speak of the Boards only in relation to private effort. In that point of view they bear, however, a double aspect. They may manage schools of their own, and in that capacity may receive aid from the Department, and thus be regarded as themselves examples of private effort. On the other hand, they may, like the Department, dispense grants from public funds in aid of private effort in the stricter sense. In very many cases they will, no doubt, have to act in both of these capacities. Obviously when in receipt of aid they should be treated by the Department on the principles explained above, and when they take the place of the Department as administrators of funds for grants-in-aid, their action should be regulated by the same principles.

500- Local and Municipal Boards as Managers of Schools—When Local and Municipal Boards manage schools founded by themselves, they must of course enjoy the same amount of freedom as other managers. In all ordinary cases they will be subject only to such supervision and control from the Department as the revised rules prescribe for managers generally. But a special class of cases will arise when any of the schools at present managed by the Department are transferred to them. These cases might be considered in connection with what we shall say hereafter as to the principles which should guide the Department in withdrawing from the direct provision of the means of education. But it will be more convenient to present our Recommendations on this subject here, and so to include in one view the relations that should subsist between Local and Municipal Boards and the Department. When any such transfer of management takes place, it is obviously desirable that its terms be clearly understood, and that precautions be taken lest there be any falling off in the standard of efficiency attained, or in the rate of fee imposed, under the former management of the institution. It is equally necessary to preserve the rights of the teachers who may be employed in the school at the time when the transfer is made. We therefore recommend *that when any school or class of schools under departmental management is transferred to a Local or Municipal Board, the functions of such board be clearly defined, and that as a general rule its powers include (a) the appointment of teachers qualified under the rules of the Department; (b) the reduction or dismissal of such teachers, subject to the approval of the Department; (c) the selection of the standard and course of instruction subject to the control of the Department; and (d) the determination of rates of fees and of the proportion of free students, subject to the general rules in force.* It will be observed that in the case of that are thus transferred, we desire that the Department should have voice in various matters which in ordinary cases it is preferable to leave to

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the decision of managers alone, and in particular that none but teachers who possess the qualification prescribed by the rules be at any time appointed in such schools.

In the last Recommendation we have chiefly had in view the transfer to Local or Municipal Boards of primary schools, which contribute directly to the welfare of the entire local community and the management of which is comparatively easy. How far it is desirable that such bodies should manage institutions of a higher order is still in some degree a moot point. Experience may be expected to cast light on it in coming years. It is possible that the boards may consider the management of schools that confer a direct benefit on comparatively few as lying beyond their proper sphere. It is also possible, on the other hand, that secondary schools may be found to prosper better under committees of men who have special interest in education than under bodies primarily intended to accomplish very different purposes. At the least we desire that no obstacle be offered to the provision of secondary instruction by voluntary associations of native gentlemen formed specially for that purpose if such a course be shown by experience to be most advisable on the whole. We therefore recommend *that if in any Province the management of Government schools of secondary instruction be transferred either to Municipalities or Local Boards, or to Committees appointed by those bodies, encouragement be given to the subsequent transfer of the schools concerned to the management of associations of private persons combining locally with that object, provided they are able to afford adequate guarantees of permanence and efficiency.* We have abstained from recommending that secondary schools should be managed by Municipal or Local Boards; but some Provinces may wish to make the experiment, and in some it is being made already,

501. Municipal and Local Boards as Distributors of Aid—Municipal and Local Boards will, according to our Recommendations in Chapters III and IV. be extensively entrusted with the duty of aiding from the funds at their disposal the privately managed schools within their Districts. This is an extension of the principle of self-Government which has a large preponderance of considerations in its favour, but which it is nevertheless necessary to guard against abuses that may possibly interfere with the progress of education. Many witnesses have expressed some fear that the boards may manifest eccentricity or be swayed by prejudice in fixing the conditions on which they grant their aid. The Recommendation in paragraph 217 of Chapter IV, to the effect that the Boards shall adopt the rules prescribed by the Department for aiding primary schools, and shall introduce no change without the sanction of the Department, will to some extent provide against this possible evil. There is still, however, the danger that undesirable changes in the rules may be sanctioned in the course of time, and the more pressing danger that practical evils may arise in spite of rules. Much must always depend on the spirit in which rules are administered, and many evils have been suggested that may perhaps arise when administration has passed into the hands of Municipal and Local Boards. For example, it is feared that the claims of the poor may be overlooked; that where the language difficulty exists, sufficient aid may not be given to schools established for the benefit of minorities; and particularly that little encouragement may be afforded to schools primarily intended for the children of aboriginal and out-caste races. These and cognate dangers it is desirable to provide against as far as possible. We therefore recommend *that when Local and Municipal Boards have the charge of aiding schools, (1) their powers and duties be clearly defined ; (2) that it be declared to be an important part of their duty to make provision for the primary education of the children*

of the poor; (j) that precautions be taken to secure that any assignment to (hem from public funds for purposes of education be impartially administered ; (4) that an appeal against any refusal of aid lie to the Department.

SECTION 9.—The Future of aided Education.

502. Introductory.—We have now described the present extent of private effort, the general condition of the education it supplies, and the amount of aid extended to it by the State in the various Provinces; we have also enumerated the chief complaints of those who are interested in private educational enterprise, and have given a general outline of the relations that ought to subsist between them and the Department and between them and public bodies exercising statutory powers. This leads naturally to some remarks on the future development of education under private managers. It is not less the avowed policy of Government than the true interest of the community that the growth of such education should be helped by all legitimate and prudent means. Considerations of economy, of the more rapid spread of education, and of the awakening of a spirit of self-help and of personal interest in the public good,—all point in the same direction. For much of the encouragement that is needed we rely on the Recommendations made above, intended as they are to bring privately managed institutions into closer and more friendly relations with the Department, and to make those connected with them feel that the State is warmly interested in their success and anxious to promote every wise effort they may make to spread useful knowledge among every class of the inhabitants of India. There are some points, however, on which it still seems necessary to dwell, since they involve suggestions tending to secure the more rapid development and the greater usefulness of institutions that take their origin from private effort.

503. Heed of increased Resources.—Financial considerations necessarily occupy the foremost place. Much may be done, as much has been done, by the spirit of benevolence; but that spirit must be actively encouraged if its effects are to be widely extended. Even if it were within the range of hope that purely disinterested benevolence should meet a large part of the educational necessities of the country, it would not be in accordance with sound policy to rely on it; since it is part of the very idea of modern education that it should as far as possible be paid for by those who profit by it. For the sound development of education, therefore, it is indispensable that whatever is done by those who consent to make sacrifices for the public good should be met by efforts on the part of those who are directly benefited, and by the State as representing the community at large.

504. Increased Resources from Pees.—Thus all considerations point to the desirability of raising fees as far as circumstances allow. We believe that much in this direction remains to be done in every Province; and we hope that Recommendation No. 8 of Chapter VII will draw the attention of all interested in education to the importance of steady effort towards this end. Such effort is particularly required in India, on account of the traditional sentiment in favour of gratuitous education which still lingers in the minds alike of Muhammadans and Hindus. This sentiment may have much in it that

pleasing, but it is wholly incompatible with any wide-spread scheme for education of a modern type. The Brahman educated in a Sanskrit school devoted himself to a life that involved in some measure the renunciation of the world,

S03Eiae sixov of reason claim a share in the fruits of the in-

dustly of others. No such claim can rightly attach to English education, which has a high money value of its own. It is essential that the old feeling upon this point should be gradually and cautiously but completely changed, ^That it has begun to be changed and may be changed still further, is manifest from the great progress towards self-support that some classes of schools have already made in some Provinces. The Government secondary schools of Bengal raise in fees 51 per cent, and the aided secondary schools of Madras 48 per cent, of their entire expense, and the Government secondary schools of Bombay and Madras follow these at no very great distance. This is shown in Table IV in this Chapter ; from which it also appears that in other Provinces both classes of secondary schools are in this respect still very far behind.

505. Possible Increase of Fees in different Classes of Institutions.—

It is in secondary schools that most should be done in the way of self-support. On the one hand the education which they furnish stands on a widely different footing from that afforded in the primary school. Although the necessity may be admitted of securing throughout the country the means of advanced education, still it is not in the same degree incumbent on the State to take measures for placing secondary instruction within the easy reach of all. Secondary instruction has a prospective money value and should be paid for by those who receive it. On the other hand, it is not so expensive as collegiate education. In a college the attempt to raise the individual fee to the same proportion of the entire expense that it may bear without much difficulty in a secondary school might result in such a rate as would be prohibitory to the majority of students, and therefore in a diminution rather than an increase of the total income. Yet even in colleges the friendly co-operation of managers may do much to secure a cautious but steady increase. In a letter from the Director of Public Instruction of Madras, contained in a memorial submitted by the Missionary Executive Committee of that Province and printed in the Appendix to this Report, there is an interesting account showing how the fees in the leading departmental and the largest aided college of Southern India were simultaneously raised three times in the course of eleven years, without any permanent decrease of the attendance at either of the colleges. Thus with co-operation on the part of managers and judicious help from the Department, as the central authority in education, much may still be done to make colleges more self-supporting than they are. The aided colleges of Bengal are the foremost in India in point of self-support. As shown in Table IV in this Chapter they raise upon the whole 29 per cent, of their expenditure by means of fees. We are of opinion, however, that by steady effort a higher standard than this may be attained in course of time, without any sudden or excessive raising of fees or any injudicious pressure on students or their parents. With a liberal scholarship system for the help of poor students of marked ability, there is no hardship in a fairly high rate of college fee. As to primary schools, although their growth in self-support must be regarded as a consideration inferior in importance to the increase in the number of their pupils, yet practically no such large or rapid increase will be possible if the principle of self-support be lost sight of. Even in this class of schools something may be done. Many primary schools are situated in large towns where the value of education is now understood, and where parents are well able to bear a large proportion of the expense of the education of their children. In such places fees may be wisely raised, even while elsewhere the prominent aim may as wisely be to place the necessary rudiments of education within reach of the backward and the ignorant at as easy a rate as possible. In all arrangements for thus increasing the self-support of any class of institutions, it is plainly necessary that schools under every kind of management should, as far as possible, advance *pari passu*, Government insti-

tutions leading the way, as it is incumbent on them to do, and as they have generally done. Thus the increase of fees is the first financial resource to which we look for the future encouragement and extension of private effort in the provision of the means of education. Such increase will have a double operation. First, it will place greater means at the disposal of present managers, which in most cases will be employed for opening new schools or developing and enlarging old ones. Secondly, what is even more important, managers of existing schools, as well as others who are possessed of public spirit, will be incited to fresh exertions by the practical proof that such efforts are appreciated by those for whose benefit they are made.

506. State Aid as an Encouragement.—The steady increase of self-support by means of fees is thus one of the greatest encouragements to managers to persevere in educational efforts and to extend them. A similar steady increase in the aid afforded by the State is not equally necessary. Yet that aid also is an encouragement as well as a direct help. Even without much response from those who benefit by their labours, public-spirited school managers may long persevere if an authority which, like the State, commands the respect of all, signifies in a practical and impressive manner its approval of the efforts that they make. This may often be the only encouragement they are likely to receive for a considerable time; and when such is the case, there is need in every point of view that State aid should for a time be large and liberal. We do not think that it is given to anything like a proper extent in Provinces which devote like Bombay only 4/37 per cent., or like the North-Western Provinces and Oudh only 9*03 per cent., of public educational funds to the aid of private effort. Such meagre provision appears to us to be opposed to the whole spirit of the Despatches that bear upon this subject. On the other hand, as self-support increases, assistance from public funds may very properly diminish, because no longer so imperatively required. It is at this point that one of the most difficult problems rises in regard to the future of aided education.

507. Safeguards against premature or sudden Withdrawal of

Grants.—The problem is how to transfer State aid in whole or in part from localities or institutions which no longer need it to those which still require it, without discouraging the managers by whom it has been previously enjoyed. With the question of transferring funds from aided to departmental institutions, we do not deal; because any such procedure is diametrically opposed to the general line of policy that Government has laid down. But the problem that legitimately arises presents many difficulties. On the one hand, it is imperatively necessary that State aid be continued as long as the need for it remains. In our view, stability in the grant is even more essential for the due encouragement of private enterprise than liberality in its amount. A merely arbitrary withdrawal of such aid, when the crippling of a useful institution is the inevitable consequence of the withdrawal, must fatally discourage ordinary managers; and not only the managers of the one institution that has suffered, but all other managers equally. For even a single case of the kind may lead all to feel that they can no longer regard the contribution from public funds as an element in their income on which it is safe to count. On the other hand, there must plainly be a diminution of State aid as self-support increases, otherwise the limited funds available will be wasted on comparatively few institutions, while at the same time one of the main motives for effort towards making an institution self-supporting by means of fees will be removed, and resources will not be forthcom-

• lag, without extravagant expenditure, for encouraging the new workers in the
 the education whom timely help might bring forward in constantly increasing
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 numbers.

spread of education, is in some danger of prematurely reducing or withdrawing aid to existing institutions, and thereby discouraging that private effort which ought to be his most powerful co-adjutor. Were it only possible* it would be in every respect desirable to guarantee distinct financial rights to those who by their disinterested efforts for the spread of education have taken on themselves financial responsibilities. We have carefully considered how far this object may be attained by means of legislative enactment. We have not found it possible to devise any scheme that would command general assent and be at the same time sufficiently elastic to meet the very varied cases that are likely to arise.

508. Difficulties in the way of providing Safeguards.—The main difficulty is that no one rate of aid can be laid down as always equitable or adequate. Such a proportion of the entire expense of an institution as might be far from excessive in some cases would be wastefully superfluous in others. Nor can any one rate be fairly fixed even for all institutions of the same class. Those who struggle to maintain a secondary school in some poor town where a secondary school may for many reasons be eminently desirable, have a manifest right to expect more liberal aid than that given to the managers of a similar school in the midst of a large and wealthy population.

509. General Principles bearing on the Safeguards needed—For any detailed rules that may serve as a protection against the sudden withdrawal or reduction of State assistance, we must look to those who may be entrusted with the revision of the Code for grants-in-aid in each Province. We trust they will be able to insert in the new Codes some general provisions on the point such as may be suited to the circumstances of the different parts of the Province, and to the system on which aid is administered within it. Two general principles that bear upon the question may be safely laid down here. One is that no withdrawal or reduction should take place (except in consequence of misconduct or inefficiency), without consultation with the managers concerned, or without* W opportunity being given them for an appeal to the highest authority, in the^ make one, before the reduction is publicly announced. We have^~to this already, but we desire to lay particular emphasis on it in connection with the matter in hand. The second is that in view of the absolute necessity that the representatives of private effort should feel perfect confidence in the stability of State support if their efforts are to be continued or increased, it is safer in this matter to err by excess than by defect. To continue a liberal grant somewhat beyond the time when it has ceased to be indispensable, is better than to reduce it prematurely and thus to awaken in the public mind a doubt whether the State feels an effective interest in the success of institutions under private managers. The one error leads to some waste of funds. The other prevents efforts from being made which might result in *creating* a powerful agency for the spread of education. Grants should be continued until it has become perfectly clear, if not to the managers concerned at least to all impartial persons who are competent to judge, that the time for their reduction has arrived.

510* The best practical Safeguard—After all, the best security against sudden or premature reduction of grants will probably be found in the prevalence of the feeling that privately managed institutions are an integral portion of the whole system of education,—a feeling which all our Recommendations in this Chapter, and many in other Chapters, are meant to foster. If it be proved in practice that the Department regards such institutions with at least as much favour as those managed by itself, and that according to Recommendation No. 10 of the present Chapter, it makes their improvement and

extension its chief object and aim, there will be little risk of the occurrence of the evils with which we are here concerned. Safeguards against them will become a matter rather of speculative interest than of practical importance. And if once such relations are universally known to prevail between the Department and private managers, any mistakes in practical administration that may still occasionally occur will not entail such discouragement to all independent effort as similar mistakes are apt to cause in some Provinces at present.

511. Importance of the mutual Co-operation of Managers—The cultivation of the feeling that all institutions, however managed, are to be regarded as a single and connected system under the friendly and impartial control of the Department, is important for the future of aided education in away not yet touched on. The very increase of self-support by means of fees will give rise to a danger—has already to a very limited extent and in a few localities given rise to a danger—which it is well to foresee and to prepare for. So long as aid is necessary to managers and is received by them, the Department has the means of regulating competition in such a way as to prevent it from interfering with the healthy spread of education. We have referred to this point in paragraph 498 of the present Chapter, and have made a Recommendation, No. 7 of Chapter VII, as to the method in which the Department should exercise the influence which it thus possesses. But when schools no longer require aid, those of them that are in competition may use such means of attracting pupils as are likely to interfere with discipline and with the quality, and even the extent, of education. The only possible remedy will be found in public opinion. Public opinion may become sound enough and strong enough to condemn and to prevent the use of such means of attracting pupils as are opposed to proper instruction or proper training. But it is only by degrees that such public opinion can be formed. If it is to grapple successfully with the evils we refer to, managers of schools in any town or District must come to regard one another as members of an organised body with aims and interests that are in a large measure common to them all. If the Department succeeds in inspiring all managers with confidence, and in accustoming them to co-operate through a series of years, moral influences may succeed in preventing unfair and hurtful competition when the time of complete self-support arrives, just as effectually as the influence of the Department, based upon the help which it impartially affords, can prevent it in the meantime.

512. A Means of increasing the Influence of aided Education in certain Localities.—Our attention has been drawn to an obstacle which has lessened the influence of aided education in special circumstances and localities, and which the course we shall now recommend may help for the future to remove. It is sometimes the case that the only institution of a particular class in a whole town or District is one where instruction in some definite form of religion is part of the ordinary course. In such cases it occasionally happens that many of the inhabitants allow their children to grow up in ignorance rather than have them instructed in the tenets of a religion they object to. From our point of view, and we believe also from the point of view of the benevolent persons by whom the schools in question are maintained, it is better that children should receive secular instruction only than that they should grow up without instruction of any kind. We are, therefore, of opinion that, in the cases described, the question whether pupils are to attend the religious lessons

should be left to the decision of their parents or guardians. We are aware that such Recommendation implies taking notice of religious instruction, and may therefore be held to contravene the fundamental principle of neutrality. But exceptional circumstances may sometimes

justify an exceptional line of action. In all cases where a practical option is already afforded to parents by the existence of an institution at which religious instruction does not form part of the ordinary course, the principle of abstinence from all enquiry whether religion is taught or not taught, should remain in force. And altogether apart from the principle of religious neutrality, we recognise that in ordinary circumstances it is best that all institutions under private managers should be perfectly untrammelled with regard to the instruction they impart and to the whole course of their development. But when it is found that any of the arrangements of an institution have the practical effect of retarding the spread of education, we consider it desirable to remedy the evil. In such cases it may commonly be better that those who object to the course of instruction in an existing school should set up a new school of their own, towards the establishment of which the Department should afford every encouragement. If that be done, the ground of interference with the course which the managers of the existing school may lay down will be removed. But until such a new school has been established, we are of opinion that parents should have it in their power to withdraw their children from that portion of the course in the existing school which they object to, so that the spread of education in the locality may not be practically hindered. We therefore recommend *that the system of grants-in-aid be based as hitherto, in accordance with paragraph 53 of the Despatch of 1854^ on an entire abstinence from interference with the religious instruction conveyed in the institution assisted: provided that when the only institution of any particular grade existing in any town or village is an institution in which religious instruction forms a part of the ordinary course, it shall be open to parents to withdraw their children from attendance at such instruction without forfeiting any of the benefits of the institution.*

513. Proposed Extension of the above Recommendation.—To some of us it seemed that this provision should extend to all aided institutions wherever situated. The preliminary objection was taken that we were precluded from considering any proposals with regard to religious education generally, by the distinct declaration that abstinence from interference of any kind with religion was laid down as the basis of the entire system of grants-in-aid, and by the statement of the Resolution which appointed the Commission to the effect that “the Government of India is firmly convinced of the soundness of the policy of the Despatch of 1854, and has no wish to depart from the principles on which it is based.”⁵¹ It was decided, however, that the point that had been raised should be discussed.* In favour of its being left for parents to decide in every case whether their children should or should not attend the religious lessons in schools where religious instruction forms part of the ordinary course, it was urged that if aided institutions are to be regarded as an integral part of the whole system of education, as all our Recommendations imply that they ought to be, they should be placed on the same footing as Government schools, the teachers in which are allowed to give voluntary instruction in religion out of the ordinary school hours. It was further urged that Government is as much responsible for seeing that all conscientious scruples are respected in schools which they aid as in those which they directly manage. The analogy of “the conscience clause” in England was referred to as showing the necessity for such provision in a country where religious differences are much less pronounced than in India. It was added that the proposal to apply this Recommendation to all aided schools wherever situated was not different in principle from the Recommendation as passed, but merely an extension of its operation; that it need not be earned into effect except where the interests of education made it necessary; and that no practical evil was likely to arise from its being laid down as a general principle. To tlds

it was replied that strict abstinence from all enquiry as to any religion being taught or not taught had been laid down as a fundamental principle by the highest authority, and that no analogy should be drawn from the system in England where the State was in constitutional alliance with an established Church, from which alliance the necessity for "a conscience clause" had historically originated. It was argued that strict neutrality was not only the declared policy of the State in India but was urgently demanded by the circumstances of the country, inasmuch as the great problem was to stir up every possible agency to aid in the spread of education, and that the aid of those animated by religious motives was too important to be dispensed with. It was added that the practical effect of the proposed departure from the policy of complete neutrality would be deplorable and disastrous, because if accepted by those whose motives for helping in popular education were mainly religious, it might give them excessive influence, while if rejected by them it would have the result of checking, and at the same time of setting in antagonism to the State, the most active of, all the voluntary agencies that have as yet come forward to help in disseminating knowledge. "We considered that any infringement of the rule of entire abstinence from interference with religious instruction in aided institutions would be inconsistent with the fundamental principle of the system of grants-in-aid and at the same time undesirable in itself, except when the institution was the only one of its class in the place. The question remains, and may have to be decided by Government, whether compliance with our Recommendation can, without breach of the strict principle of neutrality, be imposed as a condition of aid in the cases referred to.

514. A Supplement to the last Recommendation.—We perceive it to be not impossible that the Recommendation we have just made may be used as a handle for interfering with the discipline of schools. Religious scruples may be put forward when other motives are really at work. Nothing can be further from our intention than to encourage discontented pupils to persuade their parents to withdraw them at unsuitable times from any part of the regular course of instruction in a school. In cases therefore where our last Recommendation comes to be applied, we recommend *that a parent be understood to consent to his child's passing through the full curriculum of the school, unless his intention, to withdraw him from, religious instruction be intimated at the time of the child's first entering the school, or at the beginning of a subsequent term.*

515. The Future of aided Education in other special Localities.—The above Recommendations refer to the future of aided education in some peculiarly circumstanced localities. There are others in which its future depends on its being allowed room for free expansion. In a few places an aided and a departmental institution come directly into competition. There may be special reasons why the latter should not be withdrawn; but care should at least be taken that it does not overshadow and destroy the former. It must be remembered that at present popular feeling gives a departmental institution great advantages. Apart from any superiority it may have as a place of instruction, it is from a variety of causes commonly preferred by the majority. Popular feeling will no doubt gradually change if it becomes known that the State takes an even warmer interest in the well-being of institutions under private managers than in those that are directly -conducted by the Department. Something too will be done to redress the balance by continued attention to Recommendation No. 10 of Chapter V and Recommendation No. 10 of Chapter VI, to the effect that fees in departmental shall be higher than in privately :m&&aged institutions. But a difficulty remains that has not yet been touched on. When other considerations render it desirable to continue a departmental

institution side by side with one that is maintained by private effort, the former may be so constantly enlarged as to leave no room for the growth of the latter. We have already recommended that where State institutions are still required, they be maintained in full efficiency. But their full efficiency does not mean their indefinite expansion. If the resources of the State are used to provide the departmental institution with everything likely to attract candidates for admission and to enable it to make room for all such candidates, the popular feeling in its favour may be so wrought on that prosperity may become scarcely possible for the aided institution by its side. At the same time there may be no room given for definite complaint to the managers of the latter. In such cases as we have described, some restriction on the growth of the departmental institution,—for example by a gradual increase in the rate of fees—may become an indispensable condition for the lasting usefulness of the aided institution that competes with it. This is a difficulty in practical administration which cannot be met by any rules that it is possible to lay down. We may here call attention to the following remarks of the Government of Bengal in reviewing the General Report on Public Instruction for 1881-82, That Government is of opinion that the growing demand for English learning should not be “ met by indefinite extensions of the accommodation now afforded by zila “ schools; but that endeavours should be made by limiting the numbers “ admitted to those schools, to give free play to the efforts of private enter-⁶⁶ prise and to the healthy spirit of competition which it engenders.⁵³ The whole subject, however, borders on two others that are both difficult and important, *viz.*, the withdrawal of Government from the direct provision and management of education, and the indirect aids which the State may afford to private educational effort. These two subjects we shall now proceed to consider in the two following sections.

SECTION 10.—*The Withdrawal of the State from the direct Provision and Management of Education, especially of higher Education.*

516. Introductory .—Perhaps none of the many subjects we have discussed is encompassed with greater difficulty or has elicited more various shades of opinion, alike among the witnesses we have examined and within the Commission itself, than that of the withdrawal of Government from the direct support and management of educational institutions, especially those of the higher order. The difficulty of the subject arises from the great number of opposing considerations, each of which must have proper weight allowed it and be duly balanced against others. Complete agreement is not to be expected in a matter where so many weighty arguments on opposite sides have to be taken into account.

517. Opinions of Witnesses.—The points to which we invited the attention of witnesses were mainly these We asked them to explain the admitted fact that the policy of withdrawal indicated in the Despatch of 1854 had as yet been hardly initiated. We asked them also their view as to the propriety of further and more decisive action in this direction. For the fact in question many reasons were assigned, the chief of which were the **success** and popularity of the Government institutions, which naturally made the Department anxious to retain them, and the difficulty of finding suitable agencies able and willing to accept the transfer, without detriment to education in the locality concerned. With regard to future action two strongly opposed lines of argument were followed. On the one hand, it was urged that the very success of the advanced institutions supported directly by the State is a reason

for maintaining them; that the people regard the maintenance of such institutions as an important part of the duty of the State as representing the community, which cannot justifiably be neglected or shifted to other shoulders ; that the example of many civilised communities is in favour of the management of advanced education by the State; that this duty is now carried out in India at a cost which bears an insignificant proportion to the whole expenditure upon education, and still more insignificant when compared with the whole resources of the State; that as a rule there are no agencies to whom such institutions can be safely transferred; that the order of withdrawal must be from below upward, and that, even admitting that the time is come or is approaching when Government may withdraw from secondary schools, the time for its withdrawal from colleges is still distant, or may never arrive; that no resources but those of the State are adequate to procure a steady supply of men fit to teach in the highest institutions; and that any withdrawal of the State from higher education would necessarily throw it into the hands of missionary bodies, the chief advocates of a change which would cause distrust and apprehension in the great mass of the native community. On the other hand, it was urged that if ever education is to be adequate, it must be national in a wider sense than is implied in mere State management, and must be managed in a great measure by the people themselves; that the very success of Government institutions is itself a bar and a discouragement to that local combination and self-reliance which it is a primary object of the grant-in-aid system to encourage; that as a matter of course the people will not exert themselves to supply their educational wants so long as it is understood that Government is ready to undertake the task; that, therefore, the greatest stimulus which Government can give to private effort is to put an end to arrangements which make it needless; that there is some analogy between the action of Government in the matter of education and in the matter of trade, because though Government can do more than any one trader it cannot do so much as all and yet it discourages all, for none can compete with Government; that Government action thus represses free competition and creates a monopoly injurious to the public interest ; that the absence of bodies willing to manage higher institutions is rather the effect than the cause of the unwillingness of the Department to withdraw from the direct provision of the means of education; that closing 'or transferring Government institutions of the higher order would not result in any diminution of the means of higher education, but would provide fresh funds for its extension in backward Districts, so that education would soon be far more widely diffused than at present; and lastly, that if the policy of withdrawal be accepted, it can be readily guarded by provisions that will bar its application to any missionary agency, and that this policy will, on the contrary, so develop native effort as to make it in the long run vastly superior to all missionary agencies combined.

518. The Bearing'of the Policy of Withdrawal on missionary Education*—The question how far the withdrawal of the State from the direct provision of means for higher education would throw such education into the hands of missionary bodies, held the foremost place in all the evidence bearing on the topic of withdrawal. Prominent officers of the Department and many native gentlemen argued strongly against any withdrawal, on the ground that it must practically hand over higher education to Missionaries. As a rule the missionary witnesses themselves, while generally advocating the policy of withdrawal* expressed quite the contrary opinion, stating that they neither expected nor desired that any power over education given up by the Department should pass into their hands. In a country with such varied needs as we should deprecate any measure which would throw excessive influence

over higher education into the hands of any single agency, and particularly into the hands of an agency which, however benevolent and earnest, cannot on all points be in sympathy with the mass of the community. But the fear which some departmental officers and some native gentlemen in all Provinces have expressed so strongly, appears to most of us to attach too little weight to the following considerations. No doubt if all Government colleges and high schools were to be suddenly closed, few except missionary bodies, and in all probability extremely few of them, would be strong enough to step at once into the gap. But any such revolutionary measure would be wholly opposed to the cautious policy prescribed in all the Despatches. There is no reason why a wise and cautious policy of withdrawal on behalf of local managers should favour missionary more than other forms of private effort. It might, on the contrary, have the effect of encouraging and stimulating native effort in its competition with missionary agency. For example we have shown in Section 2 of this Chapter that in the Presidency of Madras, where missionary education certainly holds a higher position than in any other Province, the encouragement given to private effort since 1865, while it has no doubt enlarged the work done by Missionaries, has evoked native effort in a far greater ratio. Most of this native effort has indeed been in lower rather than in higher education; but the amount of it that has taken the latter direction is sufficient to show that private native managers are thoroughly competent to conduct institutions of an advanced character. It would appear from the evidence of Mr. Y. Krishnamachariar that high schools under native management in Madras are already able to produce better results than mission high schools, and at much less expense. The colleges too under native management hold a high position; as they also do, even though unaided, in Calcutta, and as high schools under native management do in many Provinces. It thus seems clear that in Provinces at present, and in the rest in course of time, native private effort with proper aid and supervision can take the place of departmental effort.

any rate secondary instruction* provided only that the withdrawal of the Department be not carried out too suddenly or on too large a scale. It appears that in Madras at least ten high schools, some of them unaided, are working successfully in the same towns as mission high schools. In Calcutta, where missionary effort is stronger than in any other city of India, the number of unaided high schools under native management is even greater. If native effort can thus hold its own in the face of keen competition, it seems plain that it could do so with still greater ease when a long established and efficient Government institution is transferred to native managers in places where no competition is likely to arise, provided the people are advanced and wealthy enough to maintain in full efficiency an institution of their own,

5X9. Withdrawal in favour of missionaries to be avoided.—At the same time we think it well to put on record our unanimous opinion that withdrawal of direct departmental agency should not take place in favour of missionary bodies, and that departmental institutions of the higher order should not be **transferred** to missionary management. In expressing this view we are merely re-echoing what is implied in the Resolution appointing the Commission, since it is “to bodies of native gentlemen who will undertake to manage them satisfactorily as aided institutions/” that Government in that Resolution expresses its willingness “to hand over any of its own colleges or schools in suitable cases.”⁹⁵ It is not impossible that the restriction thus imposed upon the policy of transfer or withdrawal, may be represented as opposed to strict neutrality, which should altogether set aside the question whether a school or a body of

managers inculcates any religious tenets or not. But it is so manifestly desirable to keep the whole of the future development of private effort in education free from difficulties connected with religion, that the course which we advise seems to us to be agreeable to the spirit, if not to the letter, of the strictest doctrine of neutrality.

520. The Position of missionary Enterprise in Education—In the point of view in which we are at present considering the question, missionary institutions hold an intermediate position between those managed by the Department and those managed by the people for themselves. On the one hand, they are the outcome of private effort, but on the other they are not strictly local; nor will encouragement to them directly foster those habits of self-reliance and combination for purposes of public utility which it is one of the objects of the grant-in-aid system to develop. Missionary institutions may serve the great purpose of showing what private effort can accomplish, and thus of inducing other agencies to come forward. They should be allowed to follow their own independent course under the general supervision of the State; and so long as there are room and need for every variety of agency in the field of education, they should receive all the encouragement and aid that private effort can legitimately claim. But it must not be forgotten that the private effort which it is mainly intended to evoke is that of the people themselves. Natives of India must constitute the most important of all agencies if educational means are ever to be co-extensive with educational wants. Other agencies may hold a prominent place for a time, and may always find some place in a system in which great variety is on every ground desirable. But the higher education of the country will not be on a basis that can be regarded as permanent or safe, nor will it receive the wide extension that is needed, until the larger part of it at all events is provided and managed by the people of the country for themselves.

521* The Limits of opposing Views within the Commission—With such wide differences—differences amounting to a complete conflict of opinion—among witnesses, it could not be expected that entire agreement could be easily arrived at in a body so large and of such varied composition as the Commission. It is important, however, to indicate the limits within which the differences in our own views were all along confined. They are in effect the limits indicated in the Despatch of 1854. That Despatch, as we have already pointed out, looks forward to the time when “many of the existing Government institutions, specially those of the higher order, may be safely closed or transferred to the management of local bodies under the control of, and aided by, the State.” This clearly implies that, though individual institutions might long require to be maintained directly by the State, the hope was entertained that a time would come when any general system of education entirely provided by Government should be no longer necessary—a result towards which some progress has been made in many Provinces. On the other hand, the same Despatch lays down as clearly that the progress of education is not to be checked by the withdrawal which it directs to be kept in view and that not a single school is to be abandoned to probable decay. Subsequent Despatches, as we have shown in Section 1 of the present Chapter, have specially emphasised and in some respects extended this limitation of the policy of withdrawal, For instance, in paragraphs 45 and 46 of the Despatch of 1859, while it is remarked that the existing Government colleges are on the whole in a satisfactory state, and where they exist are to be placed on a better footing, stress is laid on the substitution of private agency in the management of secondary education. Which it was hoped would eventually be uni-

versal. To all such, limitations we felt hound to give great weight, not less because they have been laid down by the highest authority than because we regarded them ourselves as wise and right. The reasons in favour of action tending towards the withdrawal of the State from direct management appeared to us conclusive; while the need of the greatest caution if withdrawal is not to be altogether premature, and therefore widely injurious, appeared equally indisputable. Our difficulty lay in co-ordinating the two classes of opposing considerations so as to determine the proper path for present action. It may be well to point out what are the opposing considerations to which most importance should be attached in arriving at a decision on this matter.

522. Considerations in favour of Withdrawal: Saving to public

Funds.—The argument based on considerations of economy is extremely forcible, —how forcible will best appear by a reference to No. IY of our Tables on grants-in-aid, in Section 3 of this Chapter. We shall first point out the comparative cost to the State of instruction in departmental and in aided colleges. Putting together the amounts contributed from provincial revenues and from other public funds, it appears from Table IY that the net cost to the State of educating each student in a Government college varies from Rs. 534-8-6 per annum in the North-Western Provinces, and Rs. 47 7-1 -10 per annum in the Punjab, to Rs. 210-1-2 in Madras, and Rs. 165-8-5 in the second grade college of the Central Provinces; and that the average for all the Government colleges in India is Rs. 254-13-6 per annum for each student that attends them. The Table, however, shows, as has been explained in Section 3, only the amount that passes through the hands of the Department, and makes no allowance for the pensions of Professors. If the allowance calculated in that section be made for this additional expense, the average net cost to the State of each pupil in the colleges that are provided and managed by Government directly will be about Rs. 297 per annum. Of non-Government colleges the most expensive is the Oriental College at Lahore, each student in which costs Rs. 107-2-3 per annum to public funds. As explained already, it is doubtful how this college should be classed, and however classed it stands on a totally different footing from ordinary aided colleges. The total expenditure from public funds on each student in aided colleges of the ordinary kind varies from Rs. 76-9-3 per annum in the North-Western Provinces to Rs. 29-9-8 per annum in Madras, and Rs. 28-0-7 in Bengal; while, including the Oriental College at Lahore, the average for India generally is Rs. 42-9-1. If the Lahore Oriental College is excluded from view, the net cost to public funds of each student in an aided college, taking the average of all such colleges in India, is only Rs* 35-1 i-i, or excluding all Oriental colleges Rs. 35-14-3 per annum. Of course no addition has to be made on account of pensions to the cost of aided colleges to public funds. If pensions are given in any of them, the expense falls entirely on private resources and imposes no outlay on the State. It thus appears that even if the exceptional Oriental College at Lahore be classed as an aided college, each student in a departmental college costs the State about seven times as much as each student in an aided college. If aided colleges of the ordinary type are alone considered, then the cost to the State of each student in a departmental college is more than eight times the cost of each student in an aided college. Two facts should, however, be borne in mind as accounting to some extent for this startling difference. —On the one hand, in the departmental colleges salaries are high and everything required for their full efficiency is liberally supplied. On the other hand, there is a general consent that the aid afforded to colleges under private managers has in most cases been extremely meagre, and that consequently in them salaries are commonly low, and much that is necessary to proper equipment too often

wanting. If there were greater economy in the one class of institutions and greater liberality practised towards the other, the cost to the State of educating a student in the former class could hardly exceed the cost of educating a student in the latter in a ratio so great as that of to i. But it seems safe to infer that, even if all such inequalities were redressed each student in a departmental college would still cost the State some four or five times as much as each student in a college conducted by private managers. Thus wherever it becomes possible for Government to withdraw from the direct maintenance of colleges, the saving to provincial revenues in that class of education will necessarily be great.

In regard to secondary instruction, the difference in point of cost between departmental and aided schools, though not so striking as in colleges, is highly important. It appears from Table IY that the net cost to public funds (that is to Provincial revenues and Local and Municipal rates together) of educating each pupil in a departmental secondary school varies from Rs. 38-5-9 per annum in the North-Western Provinces to Rs. 17-1-1 in Bombay; while the net cost of educating each pupil in a corresponding aided school varies from Rs. 33-7-7 per annum in the Punjab to Rs. 6-7-8 in Madras. The figures given in the Table for both classes of secondary schools in Bengal are considerably lower than those we have just cited; but the Bengal figures for this class of instruction cannot be brought into just comparison with those of other Provinces. In Bengal the statistics laid before us make no distinction as to cost between 44,880 pupils in the secondary stage of instruction and 94,318 who are returned under secondary schools but in reality are studying in the primary departments of high and middle schools. Obviously since primary instruction is so much less costly than secondary, the average cost of each pupil, as it appears in our Table, is much less than—probably not more than a third of—the true cost of educating those who belong to high and middle schools alone. As matters stand, however, we have no means of disentangling from the totals supplied to us either the cost to the State or the total cost of those pupils who are passing through the stage of secondary instruction in Bengal. The average cost to public funds stands for India as a whole at Rs. 5-5-5 per annum for each pupil in an aided secondary school, as against Rs. 19-8-0 per annum for each pupil in a corresponding departmental school. These figures are in both cases less than the real cost, because the average for India includes the figures for Bengal, which, as just explained, are greatly lessened by the inclusion in the returns of secondary instruction of so large a number of pupils in the primary stage. It is not likely, however, that the ratio between the expense of the two classes of institutions is appreciably disturbed by this want of accuracy as to the total expense in each. If to the Rs. 19-8-0 per annum which it costs to educate a pupil in a departmental secondary school be added Rs. 3-4-0, the pension allowance of one-sixth, which is also borne by the State, though not paid from educational funds, it appears that the net cost of each pupil in a departmental secondary school is Rs. 32-12-0 per annum as against Rs. 5-5-5 in a corresponding aided school. Thus the departmental secondary school is rather more than four as costly as the aided one,

The average cost to the State of each pupil in a departmental primary school is for all India more than three times as great as in an aided primary school. On this point, however, which involves many considerations, we need not here dwell; and especially as the proportion varies widely in different Provinces. It is also admitted on all hands that questions of expense have less weight in regard to elementary than in regard to more advanced stages of instruction.

As to colleges and secondary schools that the grant-in-aid system is especially applicable,

523. Considerations in favour of Withdrawal Summary of the

Argument from Economy.—It is to be remembered that the foregoing calculations are based on a hypothesis of entire and immediate withdrawal, which is admitted on all sides to be impracticable. But it may serve to show the strength of the financial reasons for withdrawal, when viewed by themselves, if we estimate at this point the saving that might be effected and applied to the further development of education if other considerations allowed a step of this kind to be taken. And it will be obvious that even partial action in the direction of withdrawal would liberate a proportionate share of public funds. The general result of the foregoing enquiry is that, as at present managed, departmental colleges are about eight times, and departmental secondary schools about four times, as expensive to the State as the corresponding institutions under private managers. The net outlay from public funds on Government colleges is Rs. 6,43,891 per annum, and the entire sum these colleges cost the State when the pension estimate is added may be called in round figures Rs. 7,50,000. At the present rate of aid, one-eighth of this amount, or say Rs. 94,000 per annum, would educate the same number of students in aided colleges, a saving being thus effected of Rs. 6,56,000. Again, the whole outlay from public funds on departmental secondary schools is at present Rs. 11,14,702 per annum. When the pension allowance is added, their whole net cost to the State may be placed in round figures at Rs. 13,00,000. At the present rate of aid, one-fourth of this amount, or Rs. 3,25,000, would educate the same number of pupils in aided secondary schools, a saving being thus effected of Rs. 9,75,000 per annum. Thus the total saving on collegiate and secondary education taken together would amount to Rs. 16,31,000 per annum.

Now in addition to the Rs. 20,50,000 per annum which we have seen to be expended (including pension charges) on collegiate and secondary education in departmental institutions, nearly Rs. 6,35,000 per annum is spent on such education in institutions conducted by private managers. Thus about Rs. 27,00,000 is the total State expenditure on all classes of collegiate and secondary institutions. If it were possible to put all departmental colleges and secondary schools on the same footing as aided institutions, the whole present amount of work would thus be done for less than Rs. 11,00,000 per annum, and the Rs. 16,31,000 saved might therefore, if applied in the form of grants-in-aid, become the means of raising the means of secondary and collegiate education to about two and a half times its present amount. Or again, the outlay from public funds on primary education is about Rs. 36,25,000 per annum. If the Rs. 16,31,000 saved were devoted to primary education, its present extent might be increased in a ratio of about 45 per cent., secondary and collegiate education remaining in point of extent as they are. It must be clearly understood that no such sweeping transfer of management as these calculations might seem to involve is possible in the near future, or desirable even if it were possible. And it will appear in the sequel that, if transfers of management are to be made at all, more liberal rates of aid than those now in force will in most cases be indispensable. Thus the calculations we have made are not to be regarded as a definite basis of action. Our figures are intended only to show the strength of the financial argument for withdrawal when that argument is regarded singly. They simply prove that it is desirable to go as far in the direction of the withdrawal of departmental management as considerations more important than those of a merely financial description will allow.

524- Considerations in favour of Withdrawal: Possibility of Improvement in the Results of private Effort—To all that has been said it must be added that private effort is as yet in its infancy, and that if encouraged and

developed to the full, it seems capable of ^{res!}^ts ^{thown}

Stoto to no means unsatisfactory, and produces them at an average

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h^That it will at some future **period** meet all, or all except the

tw will be little more than nominal, mucn more m*jr v r

XTLn it is remembered that the

· B · ^Hms which it now maintains will certainly stimulate private
to fresh aertions, provide that meh withdrawal take pl»« only when the
time is ripe.

525. Considerations in favour of Withdrawal: Need of Variety in the Tm of Education.—Another argument in favour of withdrawal »
Xredto in the Resolution appointing the Commission: we mean the urgent
Tid there is for variety in the type of higher education. Necjsary in every
country, this is particularly required in India where the larger portion at all events
of the population are apt to be passively receptive of influences from without
Departmental institutions naturally tend to u^ormity, aliie mtheir tone and
character and in their course of instruction. Not^thstanding the action that
Hften taken to promote and encourage variety in departmental institutions,
so as to suit the requirements of different localities or different sections of the
neonle the limits of any such variation are necessarily defined by the fact that
Se controlling agency is one and not many; and also in one obvious direction,
hr the fact tilt the State is bound to a policy of religious neutrality. On the
other hand institutions under private management have no necessary tendency
towards uniformity ; and the only external authority which they acknowledge
is that which is imposed equally on departmental and other institutions,—the
controlling authority of the University. Consequently any measure that tends
to increase the number of privately managed institutions, widens at the same
time the limits within which variety is possible by adding to the number of
those who under a well-regulated system of aid need be bound by no depart-
mental model and are free to work out their own ideas in their own way. As
intimated above, no college or high school can greatly transgress the limits set
by the University in prescribing the course of studies and the standards of ex-
amination; but in all matters lying outside those limits, whether relating to
subjects of study, to methods of instruction, or to discipline, managers of in-
dependent institutions can find scope for wide and healthy variety of treatment.
In the case of middle schools, there is no such authority external to the Depart-
ment; and independent institutions will accordingly enjoy complete freedom in
their Vork if the Department acts in the spirit of the suggestions we have
already made for securing greater variety in the character of secondary schools.
It will not of course be forgotten that departmental institutions may set a
standard to the large class of schools which need some example to follow. But
we would still point out that, however excellent may be the model that depart-
mental institutions afford, it is not one model, not even the best, but many
models, that the varying circumstances and needs of India demand. To some
of is *pg«»* it appears that there is a danger of non-departmental institutions
too closely to the model thus furnished them, even when circum-
jfrH— would justify or require departure from a prevailing type. The influ-
ence <& departmental instrtaiiois is admitted to be very great; and it is thought
2 --- . — * a large proportion of the whole means of

advanced instruction, it is only in exceptional cases that private managers are likely to deviate from the model that is constantly before them. To others of us this particular danger does not present itself. By their experience is held to show that whenever private persons have enterprise enough to set up a college or school, they have also independence enough to follow their own line in determining its character; adopting all that is valuable in the departmental model, and rejecting such parts of it as they may not consider suited to their purpose. In one respect also, which is subordinate but in its own place far from unimportant, Government institutions present a model which cannot be regarded as wholly suitable. Supported as they are by the practically inexhaustible resources of the State—resources at the command of a Department which naturally takes a pride in making its own institutions as nearly perfect as it can—they tend to become too stately and elaborate, and certainly too expensive, to be proper models for imitation in a country so poor as India. If such institutions were regarded as models to be universally accepted, there would be little hope of providing the means of advanced instruction even on the scale that is now required, and still less of providing it on the much larger scale that will be needed when a wider basis for it is laid by the spread of primary education among the masses of the people.

526. Considerations in favour of Withdrawal: Encouragement to religious Instruction.—Again, there is the important question of securing a religious element in higher education, or at all events of there being no practical hindrance to the presence of such an element when the people of the country wish for it. The evidence we have taken shows that in some Provinces there is a deeply seated and widely spread desire that culture and religion should not be divorced, and that this desire is shared by some representatives of native thought in every Province. In Government institutions this desire cannot be gratified. The declared neutrality of the State forbids its connecting the institutions directly maintained by it with any one form of faith; and the other alternative of giving equal facilities in such institutions for the inculcation of all forms of faith involves practical difficulties which we believe to be insuperable. In Chapter VI we have shown that we are not insensible to the high value of the moral discipline and example which Government institutions are able to afford; but we have also shown that we regard something beyond this as desirable for the formation of character and the awakening of thought. To encourage the establishment of institutions of widely different types, in which may be inculcated such forms of faith as various sections of the community may accept, whether side by side with or in succession to Government institutions, is one mode in which this difficulty can be practically solved, though it is a mode not free from objections and even dangers of its own. It is clear that whatever other efforts in this direction may be made, such encouragement would be afforded in a high degree by the withdrawal of Government institutions when the people professed their desire, and manifested their ability, to establish an institution in which special religious instruction could be given. It is true that a Government or other secular institution meets, however incompletely, the educational wants of all religious sects in any locality, and thus renders it easier for them to combine for educational purposes; while a denominational college runs some risk of confining its benefits to a particular section of the community, and thus of deepening the lines of difference already existing. Still this is a solution of the difficulty suggested by the Despatch of 1854, which expresses the hope that “institutions conducted by all denominations of Christians, Hindus, Muhammadans, Parsis, Sikhs, Buddhists, Jains, or any other religious persuasions, may be affiliated to the Universities, if they are found to afford the requisite course of study, and can be depended

“upon for the certificates of conduct which will be required/5 Apart from the strictly moral or religious aspect of this question, we may point out that the existence of institutions of the various classes thus referred to will contribute to the intellectual development of the Indian community by arousing enquiry on the highest themes of human thought and thus helping to meet what is probably the greatest danger of all higher education in India at present—the too exclusive attention to the mere passing of examinations and to the personal advantages to be derived therefrom.

527. Considerations opposed to Withdrawal: the Danger of a false Impression being made on the Public.—Such are some of the most important considerations in favour of the withdrawal of Government from the direct provision of the means of education, and especially of higher education. But arguments in favour of exercising the greatest caution, and even of interposing long delay in carrying out the policy to which such considerations point, are no less weighty and important. Hasty or premature withdrawal is certain to leave the impression that Government no longer feels any interest in the spread of liberal education; and in a country where so much importance is attached to the views and example of Government* the existence of any such impression would be one of the greatest discouragements private effort could possibly receive. Whatever steps are taken in the direction of withdrawal must therefore be taken in such a way as to make it clear beyond the possibility of doubt that they are taken for the benefit and extension and not for the injury of higher education. There is danger that measures which are called for by the highest interests of the native community may be regarded as indicating indifference to their claims or even a desire to prevent their ablest members from rising in the social scale. Such a misconception would be injurious, not only to the interests of education, but to interests which are, if possible, even higher.

528. Considerations opposed to Withdrawal: Difficulty of maintaining Colleges of the highest Type by native Effort.—Again it is more than doubtful whether either the zeal for culture or the power of combination is as yet sufficiently active to secure the maintenance in undiminished efficiency of colleges of that high type which ought to have at least one example in every Province. It is beyond doubt that native effort with due encouragement and aid is now able in many places to maintain not only high schools but also such colleges as may be regarded as auxiliaries to those of the very highest type. But it is a long step even from such colleges to those for example which are maintained by Government in the different Presidency towns. To these last, the resources of the State, coupled with the assured prospects secured by being recognised as servants of the State, have often drawn men of the highest academical distinction; Even if equally assured prospects could be held out by bodies of native gentlemen, and of this we can see no immediate prospect, it would still be more than doubtful if men of the same academic standing or the same mental calibre would connect themselves with institutions under private management— It is obviously a gain to the whole empire that such men should give themselves to the intellectual culture of the most promising Indian students. This consideration cannot in its full force have a wide application, but it is one to which, when any large measure of withdrawal is being considered, great weight will be given by every impartial mind.

529. Considerations opposed to Withdrawal: Unfitness of Government Institutions in keeping up the Standard of Education.—Connected with the last consideration is another "which applies to a greater number of ; institutions. There is no doubt that the help of such institutions

is still required in keeping up a proper standard of education in its more advanced stages. The Universities may largely serve this end, but there is need of a high standard being practically exemplified as well as theoretically set up. We are not called on to determine whether there may not be here and there a privately managed institution that may be as safely trusted to keep its standard high as any Government institution; but certainly, upon the whole, Government institutions discharge this function much better than those under native management can hope to do. With regard to colleges at all events, until those in the hands of private managers have reached greater stability and wider influence than almost any of them as yet enjoy, it would not be safe to trust to them alone for the model of discipline and intellectual attainment that is indispensable if a high type of liberal culture is to be permanently maintained. It may perhaps be thought possible to trust to competition alone for the maintenance of standard we have in view; but competition will tend in some respects towards deterioration as certainly as it will tend in others towards greater excellence. In the present state of feeling, the danger is great that the only competition between institutions will lie in a comparison of the number of passed students that each can claim. When passing examinations is the only goal that instructors keep in view, real excellence in education is not only not advanced, but is positively hindered by competition. There is of course nothing in the nature of the case to make a Government institution necessarily superior to one that is maintained by private effort. The very highest type of excellence may come to be afforded, as in some countries it is now afforded, by institutions on the footing on which aided colleges stand in India. But for the present, the stability of their pecuniary resources and the prestige which they enjoy make Government colleges more independent of competition, and should therefore enable them to maintain a high standard of excellence with very much greater ease than is likely for man[^]jp[^]-fcosC[^]me to be the case with other institutions. This consideration, one, points to the absolute necessity that the process of wilfi\$ra\$Y&| sho[^]d *\$e\ gradual and slow. It points equally to the necessity of ajffirding Kber[^]aid/ to existing institutions under private managers, especially to thos[^]h[^]&e most prominent positions, in order that their stability and efficiency may be great and their standard high. It is only when, with the advance of University education in India, private effort has proved its capacity to take the lead in giving culture of the very highest kind, that the withdrawal of departmental institutions can be effected without injury to the education of the country as a whole. The first step therefore towards any large measure of withdrawal, and towards the saving such a measure will effect and the good of many kinds that it will do, must be to afford every encouragement to private effort to show what is the very utmost it is able to accomplish.

530. Considerations opposed to Withdrawal: the present State of popular Feeling.—But the strongest of all arguments against the immediate carrying out of any extensive measure of withdrawal remains to be stated. Any large or hasty step in this direction is not only undesirable, but in our view impossible—impossible, that is to say, without injury to those educational interests which it is our duty to conserve. In the very nature of the case, withdrawal cannot be effected without the co-operation of such “ bodies “ of native gentlemen ” as those to which the Government desires to transfer the institutions now maintained directly by the State* Some Government institutions may be simply closed with little loss of any kind to education. To several cases of this kind we shall advert in the sequel. But in the majority of places where departmental institutions exist, withdrawal, unaccompanied by provision for the institutions being otherwise carried on, cannot be effected without

far more than local injury. Now the evidence shows that but few of the leading members of the native community are at present inclined, or consider themselves called on, to co-operate with Government in this matter. Yet it is a matter in which without their cordial co-operation nothing can be done. The tenor of much of the present Chapter will show that we regard the past action of the Department in its general preference for Government institutions, as having contributed to the present state of feeling. But so long as that feeling lasts, whatever its origin may have been, the policy of withdrawal can be carried out on an extensive scale only at the cost of surrendering not one school but many "to probable decay," and so at the cost of setting at naught the wise precautions of the Despatch of 1854 and subsequent Despatches. We are, however, sanguine enough to believe that the statement of the considerations which were present to the minds of the writers of the Despatch, and which have induced us to pass unanimous Recommendations in favour of action tending towards the withdrawal of the State from the direct management of higher institutions, will not be without its influence on the community at large, especially if supported by steady departmental action along the lines which we have endeavoured to lay down. We believe that when the Local Governments and the Heads of the Department have shown in practice for a sufficient time that they cordially favour the largest possible healthy development of every kind of private effort, and that they honour those who put forth such effort, bodies of native gentlemen will show that they feel the force of the call addressed to them. We believe native gentlemen will recognise the need of helping the State in its gigantic task, and the need at the same time of securing a greater extension of advanced education and a greater variety in its type. We believe that influenced by these and similar motives they will come forward voluntarily, and come forward in rapidly increasing numbers, to take the honourable place which the State has reserved to them in establishing the civilisation of their country on a firm and a permanent foundation. But there is no room for any large policy of withdrawal until public opinion has begun to turn in its favour. Any measures that outrun public opinion would retard rather than hasten the time when a really beneficial policy of withdrawal can be thoroughly carried out. No doubt, the formation of a healthy public opinion on the point may be promoted by judicious action when proper opportunities occur. If the whole influence of the State and of the Department is exerted in favour of private rather than of departmental effort within the limits of our Recommendations, and if transfers of management are made only when it is clear that they do not injure but advance the general cause of education, we are convinced that the State will at no distant date be able safely to withdraw from many of its institutions, and that, as time goes on, it will be able with universal assent to withdraw from more and more of its institutions, and from institutions always higher and higher in the educational scale. But how far the process should be carried is a question that may be left for future experience to decide.

531- Financial Considerations affecting Withdrawal—By some it may not improbably be regarded as an objection to withdrawal that the first step towards it is likely to be an increased outlay on higher education. If privately managed institutions, especially those in the most prominent positions and of the most advanced character, are to become fit to take the place of departmental institutions as the chief means of exemplifying the highest standard of culture, they must obviously become more costly than they are at Present, and must receive an increased amount of aid; and if at the same time State institutions are also to "be maintained in complete efficiency and efficiency," it may appear that some risk will arise of

excessive outlay on advanced education. This is a consideration to which we do not attach any great importance. We think that the savings effected by such withdrawal of departmental institutions as may be found possible at once, without injury, together with the increased amount of fees that may be realised in some of the departmental institutions from which no withdrawal should be contemplated, will more than suffice to meet the not very large outlay that will be needed to secure the further development and the full efficiency of advanced institutions under private managers. But even were it otherwise, we believe that gradual and cautious action by the State in the direction of withdrawal is likely to bring with it such important and beneficial results, that some temporarily increased expenditure might be wisely incurred in securing them.

532. Withdrawal from Management not to include Withdrawal from Control.—There is an important point bearing on the question of withdrawal which this is the most convenient place for introducing. We are entirely agreed that the careful supervision of the State is indispensable for higher education; and that whatever withdrawal there may be, whether soon or late, from its direct provision, there should be none whatever from its indirect but efficient control. It may be doubted whether this should be classed among the considerations in favour of withdrawal or among those that are opposed to it. It may perhaps be held that in order to retain control, the State must have some portion of the means of education under its immediate management. On the other hand, one of the arguments most relied on by some of our own number who advocate the complete withdrawal of the State from direct management at the earliest date that may be found safe in the general interests of education, is that State control over schools and colleges of every kind will be more welcome to all concerned, and therefore more efficient, when the Department has ceased to be regarded as a body of rival managers.

533. The Difficulty of defining the best Line of Action .—With opposing considerations of such great weight constantly before us, with such contrariety of opinion among our witnesses, and considerable though much smaller divergences of view among ourselves, it need not be deemed surprising that it was a work of time and difficulty to determine the exact line we should recommend Government to follow in carrying out its declared policy of handing over its colleges and schools in suitable cases to the management of bodies of native gentlemen.

534. The Course of Discussion in the Commission—It seems desirable to describe the course of our deliberations upon this subject with greater fulness than we have deemed necessary in other portions of the Report. Our main difficulty was as to the initial Recommendation from which all others would naturally follow. It was proposed to find such a starting point in the motion:—“ That under “ adequate guarantees for the permanence and efficiency of the substituted institutions, the gradual closing of Government institutions, especially those of the “ higher order, or their transfer to native management under the general control « of, and aided by, the State, should be regarded as not only an important stimulus to private effort, and consequently to any sound grant-in-aid system, but “ as urgently needed in view of the social and political education of the people.* This motion was advocated on the ground that without some clear declaration of the kind the people would always be led to depend on Government for what they could provide for themselves better, at less cost to public funds, and on a much more extensive scale. It was added that so early as 1817 private effort had founded a college in Calcutta, and that many such colleges might have been

founded elsewhere before now if the practical result of departmental action had not been to repress private effort,— of which several instances were adduced. It was further held that the necessary exclusion of religion from institutions directly provided by the State rendered it desirable to declare emphatically that such institutions were intended to give place as soon as possible to institutions in which the founders or managers might be free to combine the highest element in all training with ordinary secular instruction. To this it was replied that the most important religious influences were those of family life, and that such influences were not so entirely absent from Government institutions as was implied by the supporters of the motion; that native effort was not practically repressed under the present system, as the existence of many colleges and high schools under native management clearly showed; that the withdrawal of the State is not desired by the community generally or even by those members of it who are specially interested in institutions under private management; that though the time may have come for the State to withdraw from the management of high schools, the people are not advanced or wealthy enough to undertake the management of colleges; further, that the analogy sometimes drawn between trade and education as affected by supply and demand was inconclusive, since the motive of benevolence, which counted for nothing in the doctrines of political economy, held an important place in all considerations relating to the spread of education ; and finally, that even though the substance of the motion might be unobjectionable, its form was likely to create discontent and alarm by leaving the impression that the withdrawal contemplated was to be universal and immediate, and the further impression that the real desire was to destroy all means of liberal culture. This motion was negatived by a large majority. A motion substantially the same was subsequently brought forward, by one of our native colleagues, in a form intended to meet some of the objections that had been urged by giving greater prominence to the safeguards by which the continued efficiency of high education might be secured. It was moved “that the following be adopted as a “Recommendation under the subject of withdrawal :—That subject to the “ conditions that (*isi*) withdrawal be not effected without adequate guarantees “for the permanence and efficiency of substituted institutions, (*2ndly*) the “possibility of withdrawal be regarded as dependent on and proportionate to “the liberality of the grant-in-aid system, the gradual withdrawal of Govern- “ ment from educational institutions, especially those of the higher order, by “ their transfer to local native management under the general control of and “aided by the State, be regarded—(a) as an important stimulus to local effort “ and self-reliance; (5) as essential to the development of a sound system of “grants-in-aid; (c) as conducive to the advancement of the social, moral and “political education of the people.” This also, though it found larger support than the former motion, was unsatisfactory to the majority of our number.

535. General Conclusion arrived at.—Our discussions brought out clearly the fact that, while anxious to encourage any natural and unforced transfer of institutions from departmental to private management, we are not prepared as a body to adopt any form of expression that may be construed into a demand for the immediate or general withdrawal of the State from the provision of the means of high education. We are convinced that while transfer of man- agement under the limitations stated is eminently desirable, it is only by slow and cautious steps that it can ever be really attained. We are convinced that

Wisest policy is to consider each case on its own merits, **and** whenever a

^ satirve gentlemen are willing to undertake the management of a

school, it* iold out to their every inducement and en-

couragement, provided there is a reasonable prospect that the cause of education will not suffer from the transfer of management. The Department should cordially welcome every offer of the kind, and should accept it if it can be accepted without real loss to the community; but while encouraging all such offers, its attitude should be not that of withdrawing from a charge found to be burdensome, and of transferring the burden to other shoulders, but of conferring a boon on those worthy of confidence and of inviting voluntary associations to co-operate with Government in the work and responsibilities of national education. We have certainly no desire to recommend any measures that will have the effect of checking the spread and continuous improvement of higher education. On the contrary, it is only in the confidence that the withdrawal of the Department from direct management may, in many instances, be found to serve the best interests of education, by connecting local bodies more closely with those institutions, and by inducing and enabling them, in course of time* to raise and expend more money from private sources for their maintenance and to establish other institutions of the same kind, that the following Recommendations are made. We therefore recommend, in the first place, *that in order to evoke and stimulate local co-operation in the transfer to private management of Government institutions for collegiate or secondary instruction^ aid at specially liberal rates be offered for a term of years, whenever necessary, to any local body willing to undertake the management of any such institution under adequate guarantees of permanence and efficiency.*

This Recommendation, which is of course subject to certain exceptions to be hereafter stated, secured our unanimous approval and may be understood to show the extent to which we are agreed in desiring to see steps taken towards the substitution of private for departmental management. It implies that we regard the form of management of any institution which the common good requires to be kept up, as a matter subordinate to the efficiency of such management. But it implies also that when permanence and efficiency are adequately secured, we regard an institution that is provided by the people for themselves as greatly preferable to one that is provided by official agency. *We think it well that this preference should be marked by special encouragement being held out to those who are willing to take over the management of institutions now in the hands of the Department. In some cases perhaps, when once it is understood that the Department and the State are cordially favourable to the transfer being made, the ordinary rates for grants-in-aid may supply all the encouragement that is needed. In other cases the ordinary rate of aid may come to be sufficient in course of time, as local resources become greater. But it is more difficult to maintain in full efficiency an institution that has long had State resources to support it than one which has been gradually developed in the hands of managers, on whom their circumstances have always enforced economy. This difficulty should not be allowed to be a hindrance to the transfer. Even if the efficient maintenance of the institution should require the bestowal for a term of years of a grant as large as the present net outlay of the State, and even if there be thus for a considerable period no actual saving to public funds, the transfer should still be made on other grounds.

We hope that the result of thus encouraging rather than forcing the change desired by Government will be that in due time and without the smallest permanent injury to high education, departmental institutions will be mainly transferred to private management; that the function of the State will be largely confined to aid, supervision, and control; and that high education will become more widely extended, more varied in character, and more economical than it is at present. This end should be kept steadily in view, and the extent to which

the Department is able to work towards it should be regarded as an important element in judging of its success. But the attempt to reach this end prematurely, that is, before at least the more thoughtful members of the native community are prepared cordially to approve it, would certainly do more to retard than to hasten its accomplishment.

536. Practical Agreement as to subsidiary Recommendations —

When we had thus agreed on the starting point for our Recommendations, we found but little difficulty remaining. Our other Recommendations elicited little difference of opinion, and what difference there was referred to forms of expression and to particular details, rather than to any point of principle.

537. Recommendations to take effect at the time of Transfer—The

chief point to which we wish attention to be directed in all arrangements for the transfer of departmental institutions is their continued efficiency under their new managers. It is obvious, therefore, that when an institution is transferred, all that has been deemed necessary or useful for it when in the hands of the Department should, as far as possible, be placed at the disposal of the body that will thenceforward be responsible. We, therefore, recommend *that in the event of any Government school or college being transferred to local management, provision be also made for the legal transfer to the new managers of all educational endowments, buildings, and other property belonging to such institutions in the hands of Government.*

In some cases when a transfer of management is made, the teaching staff of the institution may elect to enter the service of the new managers on terms that may be arranged at the time. In other cases the teachers may prefer to continue in the service of the Department in another locality, or the new managers may decline their services. Arrangements will plainly have to be made for each case as it arises. But whatever may be thus arranged, it is evident that any inconvenience or hardship that may result from a measure which the State has adopted to serve great public ends should fall as lightly as possible on individuals. We therefore recommend *that in the event of any Government school or college being transferred to local management, the incumbents of offices under Government be secured in the enjoyment of all their existing rights and privileges.*

538. General Principles to regulate the Transfer of Schools—The

general tenor of the evidence of our departmental witnesses shows that the teachers at present employed by Government will be extremely reluctant to see the institutions with which they are connected transferred to private management. Such reluctance is natural even when all personal interests are secured, as provided for by our last Recommendation. The interest of departmental teachers and Professors in the institutions on which they have spent their energies must make them unwilling to consent to any transfer; for even if the transferred institution should lose nothing in point of efficiency, it must lose in prestige, in which loss they would also share; and it must find it less easy to draw the best pupils to itself when it ceases to be more closely connected with the State than the other colleges or schools in the town or District. Similarly, there may be no great readiness on the part of local bodies to apply for any transfer to themselves of the management of departmental institutions. So long as the means of a good education are provided, in whatever way, there is little to induce those who do not look beyond local interests to volunteer to take the burden of school management on themselves. Only those who consider the matter in its relation to the general policy of the State, and not those who are engaged in private effort, are likely to have any very active desire for such

transfers as we desire to see. It is therefore by Government, and by the Head of the Department as its immediate representative, that the initiative will have in most cases to be taken. Also if the leading principle of action be that transfers of management are to be sedulously encouraged but not forced on local bodies, it will naturally happen that bodies willing to undertake the management of departmental secondary schools will be more readily found than bodies willing to undertake the more difficult task of *Transferring* departmental colleges. As a practical step towards an effective policy of withdrawal, we therefore recommend *that all Directors of Public Instruction aim at the gradual transfer to local native management of Government schools of secondary instruction (including schools attached to first or second grade colleges), in every case in which the transfer can be effected without lowering the standard, or diminishing the supply, of education, and without endangering the permanence of the institution transferred.* Of course a Director has no means of compelling private parties to come forward, and in ordinary cases we are not prepared to recommend the closing of departmental institutions which local effort is not willing to provide for. But a Director, and still more a Government, can do much to influence public opinion ; and patient persistence in carrying out the policy of withdrawal whenever a suitable opportunity occurs, will doubtless make it generally felt in course of time that all should co-operate in such measures who are capable of taking broad and comprehensive views of popular education and its true necessities.

539. The Schools that should be first transferred.—To attempt however to transfer all the departmental secondary schools of a Province, or even of a District, simultaneously, might in many cases be extremely injudicious. The process must be a gradual one. The Director may therefore be ii^-ttttbt -as to which of the schools in question he should first endeavour to transfer, it seems plain that the experiment should begin with schools which have a high position, and which therefore new managers may find it easiest, and at same time most interesting, to have the honourable duty. Accordingly we recommend *that the fact that any school raises more than 60 percent. of its entire expenditure from fees be taken as affording a presumption that the transfer of such school to local management can be safely effected.* Such a proportion is already attained in many high schools at the headquarters of Districts; and the inhabitants of those places are now, in some Provinces, so fully capable of managing schools of that class, that the advantage of transferring to their management some of these schools at least, may be held to outweigh any possible,—and it may be hoped only slight and temporary,—loss of efficiency that may result. We must not, however, be understood to mean that no school should be transferred that has not yet attained this measure of self-support, nor on the other hand, that every school that has reached it should be transferred on that account alone. Other considerations will often demand attention. We desire to do no more than to give a general indication of the stage at which it is likely to be entirely safe for the Department to withdraw from management. Much must always be left to the discretion of Directors who are in sympathy with the great aim of developing private effort to the full.

540. General Principles to regulate the Transfer of Colleges—In the question of transferring the management of colleges, greater difficulties arise. These difficulties are of various kinds. For instance in Bengal, where private effort has been most extensively evoked, the people, whether from want of leading in that direction or from whatever other cause, seem to distrust their own powers of administration in the matter of colleges. Even when the means for the establishment of a new college has been provided either

entirely or chiefly by private resources, the offer of funds has in nearly every case been coupled with the condition that the Department should undertake, at least in the last resort, the management of the college. And though in ordinary matters of administration there is no reason why a local body should not conduct the current work of the college with complete efficiency, yet in one important respect such bodies are necessarily at a disadvantage. It is certain that Government can command the services of a higher class of European officers than those who would generally accept employment under local bodies, however wealthy, and of however high a status in Indian society. This difficulty may grow less, but it will continue to exist in some degree until the Universities of India can supply men of the same stamp as the Secretary of State commonly secures at present for departmental colleges. In dealing with the question much caution must be exercised, both because the management of a college being more difficult than that of a school, it is less likely to be readily undertaken by private parties, and because any mistake that may be committed will cause wider injury and be found more difficult to remedy than similar mistakes in the case of secondary schools. As our first step we therefore recommend *that in dealing with the question of the withdrawal of Government from the management of existing colleges, these colleges be regarded as divided into three classes, viz.:* (1) *Those from which it is premature for Government to consider the propriety of withdrawal, on the ground that they are, and will long continue to be, the institutions on which the higher education of the country mainly depends.* (2) *Those that might be transferred with advantage as a measure promising useful political results, to bodies of native gentlemen, provided the new managers give satisfactory guarantees that the college will be maintained, (1) permanently, (2) in full efficiency, (3) in such a way as to make it adequate for all the wants of the locality.* (3) *Those which have been shown to be unsuccessful or of which the cost is out of proportion to the utility, and from which Government might advantageously withdraw even with less stringent guarantees for permanent efficiency. Such colleges should be closed if after due notice, no local body be formed to carry them on with such a grant-in-aid as the rules provide**

The maintenance of the chief Government colleges appeared to a large majority of us to be still indispensable. We do not think that a body of native managers is likely to arise for a considerable time to whom such colleges can be entrusted without danger to their efficiency, and danger accordingly of lasting injury to the higher education of the whole Province. Private management, like all other agencies, must be trained by long and fairly successful discharge of lower duties before it can be wisely entrusted with duties that are higher and more difficult. It is true that we have recommended that liberal aid be offered to any local body willing to undertake the management of any Government college under adequate guarantees of permanence and efficiency; but in the case of the leading Government colleges of the different Provinces, it is open to question whether any body of native gentlemen can furnish at present such guarantees as should be held sufficient. There is, however, another class of departmental colleges in some Provinces which it is by no means improbable that local effort may adequately provide for, and which it is highly desirable to transfer to local management whenever this can be done without injury to education. In such cases our general Recommendation will at once apply, and any reasonable amount of aid should be offered that may be found necessary to induce native gentlemen to undertake the maintenance of such colleges as we are now considering*. Here is still a class of colleges in the Provinces of Madras and Bengal. In some cases that under this third class, the Department when it established its college

seems to have lost sight of the principle that Government institutions are not to be set up in places where aided local effort can supply all real educational wants. In other cases circumstances have so changed since the college was established that its continuance has ceased to have any other than a purely local importance. If private bodies are ready to undertake the management of any college included in this third class, aid should be offered at the rate that may be fixed for colleges generally in the grant-in-aid rules after they have undergone the revision that has already been recommended. If such aid does not induce any local body to maintain any college belonging to this class, it may be held as sufficient proof that the college may be safely closed.

541. Recommendation as to Colleges in Madras.—In Madras we are satisfied that all the departmental second grade colleges, *i.e.*, those that afford instruction up to the standard of the First Examination in Arts, *viz.*, the colleges at Bellary, Calicut, Mangalore, Berhampore, Salem, Cuddalore, and Madura, should be ranked in either the second or the third of the classes thus described. In this Province private managers are already successfully carrying on institutions of this grade under decidedly less favourable conditions than would be secured in several of these towns. Some of these colleges are, however, required in the interests of the community at large. Special aid should be offered to local bodies willing to manage these indispensable institutions, though they ought to be maintained by the Department even if no competent private managers come forward. But greater acquaintance than we possess with the whole circumstances of each case is necessary in order to decide which of the colleges in question should thus be placed in our second class rather than our third. The materials we have had for forming a judgment on this point go no further than to convince us that it is desirable for the State to withdraw from the management of these seven colleges if it can do so without injury, and that some of them do not appear to be demanded by the government of the community at large, and should be maintained, if maintained at all, only in part, and therefore mainly by local effort. We accordingly recommend that the government of Madras be requested to consider the propriety of the second grade Government Colleges of that Province on the principles applicable to the second or third class as may be deemed advisable in each case, in the light of the recommendations made by the Madras Provincial Committee.

542. Recommendation as to a College in Bombay.—In Bombay, where private native effort has received so little encouragement and development, and where such effort is as yet quite untried in the management of collegiate education, there is a case that calls for special notice. There appears to be an urgent need for a fully developed and efficient college at Ahmadabad. We regard that city as pre-eminently a place where private effort, with liberal aid from the State, might be expected to supply all needed facilities for higher education. We have, however, already expressed the opinion that the management of a college is a heavy task for private managers to undertake without preliminary training. And in a Province where the idea of self-help in matters of education has made so little way, we fear there is not much hope of such a college springing up as the great division of Gujarat requires, unless it is promoted by direct departmental action. If once the college is maintained in full efficiency for a few years, we trust that with a change in the tone of public feeling, and with the new development of private effort which our Recommendations as a whole may be expected to produce, the leading inhabitants of Ahmedabad will be long to take pride in managing and partly supporting a college worthy of the ancient history and the present importance of their city. We, therefore, recommend that

the Government of Bombay be requested to consider the propriety of raising the Ahmedabad College to one teaching up to the B.A. standard, and of securing its full efficiency for a term of years, on the condition that after that period it be treated on the principles applicable to the second class.

543. Recommendation as to Colleges in Bengal—As regards Bengal, the only other Province in which the early withdrawal of the State from the management of some of its colleges appears to be desirable, our Provincial Committee has fully considered and laid before us the local circumstances that affect the various departmental colleges which cannot be regarded as essential in the first degree to the prosperity of higher education in the Province generally. The Committee is substantially agreed as to those of them which it is undesirable to close, and in the maintenance of which any local body willing to undertake their management ought, therefore, to receive whatever special aid may be found necessary. The Committee is equally agreed as to the colleges that are not now important for any general purpose, and that may therefore be safely closed if the burden of maintaining them is not, after due notice, borne to an adequate extent by local effort. We have therefore no hesitation in recommending *that the Government of Bengal be requested to consider the propriety of dealing with the Bajshahye and Krishnagar Government colleges on the principles applicable to the second class, and with the colleges at Berhampur, Midnapur, and Chittagong on the principles applicable to the third class, as suggested by the Bengal Provincial Committee.*

544. Conclusion.—we venture to hope that the line of action we have marked out in the above Recommendations will result, not all at once yet with no longer interval than is always required for changes fruitful of large results, in public sentiment taking a direction which will lead to the gradual, and by and by to the rapid, transfer to bodies of native gentlemen of the institutions now maintained by Government. On condition that the transfer be thus effected with the approval and active co-operation of those who have the welfare of their country most at heart, we are convinced that the withdrawal in large measure of departmental management, though not of departmental supervision, will result in a wide extension of collegiate and secondary education, in placing it on a firm and satisfactory basis, and in making it more varied in character and therefore more adapted to all the wants of the community.

SECTION II.—*Indirect Aids which the State may afford to private Enterprise*
in Education.

545. Introductory.—It is obvious that the amount of private effort in education will always bear a very direct proportion to the value attached to education by the community at large. A few may be led to set up schools and to maintain them by motives of pure benevolence, but such motives cannot be expected to operate on a scale proportionate to the educational wants of India. If private effort is to supply a large proportion of the vast machinery necessary for bringing suitable instruction within reach of all classes, it must be stimulated by the prospect of something that is, or is esteemed to be, advantageous to the persons by whom such effort is put forth or to those in whom they feel a special interest. In India, where so few influences proceed from below, where on the contrary Government is so commonly looked to for the initiative in every kind of change and movement, it must depend largely on the State to make the practical value of education felt, and to form the public opinion that is needed to favour the growth of

private enterprise. In this point of view it may be doubted whether the indirect influence of the State may not do more to bring private effort to its aid than all the direct assistance it is able to afford. Such indirect aids to education occupy a prominent place in the Despatch of 1854. While they have a bearing on education generally, their effect is especially powerful in stirring up all who are interested in the well-being of the country to help in disseminating useful knowledge. Some of them, for example the supply of text-books and such encouragement as it is in the power of the State to give to native literature of a modern type, have already found a place in our Report. There are, however, a few others which it may be well to notice here.

546. State Patronage of Educated Men—The Despatch of 1854 directs attention to the importance of preferring for appointments under Government those who have received a good education, the other qualifications of the candidates being equal. There can be no doubt that this provision has done more than any other single influence to stimulate education generally, and to stimulate members of the native community both to provide the means of education, and to take advantage of them when provided. Thus in Bombay the rules for limiting the selection for high revenue appointments to graduates of the University, though perhaps objectionable on other grounds, and the rules for connecting the highest standards of the primary and secondary courses with the public service examinations, have proved a valuable help in extending education. Statements which we cannot but regard as largely exaggerated are indeed sometimes made as to education being universally and exclusively regarded as a step towards Government employment; but there can be no doubt that such statements contain a substratum of truth. The desire for education, particularly for education of a more advanced character, is nowhere strong enough as yet to dispense with this indirect aid. There is a considerable mass of evidence to show that the principle which the Despatch lays down on this point has not everywhere been successfully reduced to practice. Some witnesses go so far as to say that the ignorant are preferred for Government appointments, or that there is a positive reluctance on the part of Government officers to employ highly educated young men. We find it difficult to believe that such statements were intended to be taken literally; but they point to a state of feeling among certain sections of the community which is much to be regretted, and which wherever it exists must greatly discourage private enterprise in education. The feeling, whether well or ill founded, is most prevalent in the Punjab and the North-Western Provinces; and these are the Provinces in which we have already seen that private effort is least active and least progressive. On the other hand, in Provinces where private effort has been extensive, there is but little complaint of the kind.

In connection with this question of the employment of educated men by Government, it should be noticed how much depends on the meaning attached to the word 'educated'. We cannot regard boys of 16 to 18 who have passed the matriculation examination, as entitled to be so called. That but few of this class should at once procure appointments under Government does not seem to us a matter for either astonishment or regret. Nor can they reasonably aspire at any time beyond a more or less subordinate position. Those who at reaching the superior grades of service should start from a higher level of general education than is implied in passing the matriculation examination—a standard which certifies no more than that the student is qualified to commence a liberal course of study. But when graduates find it difficult to obtain entrance into the public service, though men comparatively uneducated are largely employed, we cannot but infer that there has been

some failure to carry out the provisions of the Despatch, though so frequently reiterated. There is some room, however, for doubt where the chief portion of the blame should rest. It cannot be supposed that the possession of a degree exempts any man from the need of official training. It may happen that young men fresh from college unreasonably expect that they are to enter the public service in a higher position and on higher pay than men who have gone through many years of faithful and useful labour. Those who cherish such expectations need not be surprised if they are often disappointed. It is not in securing a high place at the outset, "but in more rapid progress towards thorough efficiency, and consequently in more rapid promotion, that a liberal education naturally tells. However highly a man is educated, he must expect to begin life side by side with some who have enjoyed less advantages than himself. If a fair field is given him, he will in ordinary circumstances soon distance his competitors in the race. We have not the means of determining how far the fact that well educated men are in some Provinces less extensively employed by the State than they ought to be, is due to their own unwillingness to begin in a subordinate position, how far to discouragement arising from the absence of a fair field after they have begun, and how far to yet other causes. Even if we could determine this, it would be impossible to lay down rules for securing to educated men the preference they ought always to enjoy. We are not in favour of hard-and-fast rules restricting employments with certain salaries to men who have passed certain examinations, though we have noticed the existence of such a rule in favour of graduates in Bombay. If those who have patronage in their hands will take pains to see that well educated men are preferred for appointments even at the lowest stage, and thereafter to see that their work is brought to notice and fairly estimated, we have little doubt that their progress will be such as to meet all legitimate aspirations. We are satisfied that in some Provinces at least more might have been done than has been done to enlist men of liberal culture in the service of the State ; but seeing the impossibility of laying down any rigid rules in such a matter, we confine ourselves to recommending *that the bestowal of patronage in Government appointments be so ordered as to give greater encouragement to high education.* The carrying out of the Recommendation must be left to the personal care of the Heads of the various Departments. By watching to see that it is not set aside by the pressure of those whose interests are opposed to it, they will not only increase the efficiency of the public service, but at the same time do much to raise the estimation in which education is generally held, and so to encourage all private effort to promote it.

447. Provision of varied Occupation for Educated Men.—An indirect aid to the development of private effort in education which is probably even more important, though it is one which the State and its servants can do less to provide, is the opening out of spheres of usefulness beyond the narrow bounds of Government employment. "However large," says the Despatch of 1854, "the number of appointments under Government may be, the views of the natives of India should be directed to the far wider and more important sphere of usefulness and advantage which a liberal education lays open to them; and such practical benefits arising from improved knowledge should be constantly impressed upon them by those who know their feelings, and have influence or authority to advise or direct their efforts." The more successfully this is done, the more will private enterprise in education flourish. The habit of looking for employment elsewhere than to Government will help, as it has helped, to form the habit of looking elsewhere than to Government for the means of becoming qualified for such employment. It is true that it is not the State alone that must open out the industries that will gradually increase the complexity of society and

give a more extended choice in determining their walk of life to educated young men. Nor is it the servants of the State alone who must impress on the natives of India “ the practical benefits arising from improved knowledge/5 Others who have influence in native society or upon it, and particularly the heads of privately managed institutions, must play their part. But here, as everywhere in India, it is important that the State and those who represent it should largely take the lead. Every increase that is brought about by any means in the number of occupations requiring culture, and every success that attends the attempt to induce young men to look to other goals of effort than employment under Government, will help to make the people of the country aware of the practical benefits inseparable from education, and so to make them feel that the provision of the means of education, especially education of a more advanced order, rests rather with themselves than with the State. What men feel to possess a natural and intrinsic as distinct from an artificial value they will always make efforts to obtain for themselves, and for those whose interests they have at heart. Something might be contributed towards inducing the state of public opinion in which private effort is thus most likely to thrive, if those who represent the State showed that they honour men who turn a liberal education to advantage in other avocations than Government employment.

548. Elevation of the Profession of Teaching.--Much would be done to create a strong public feeling in favour of education and so to increase private effort in promoting it, by the more effectual carrying out of the wish expressed in the Despatch of 1854 ^{cf} that the profession of schoolmaster may, ^{cc} for the future, afford inducements to the natives of India such as are held “ out in other branches of the public service/1 We hope that not a little will be contributed towards this result by the Recommendations we have already made as to the larger employment of natives of the country as Professors and Inspectors of schools. It may be said that this concerns the mechanism of the Department and not private effort; but private effort must be the fruit of public sentiment, and whatever raises education and educated men in the esteem of the community must tend powerfully, if indirectly, to render individuals and associations more willing to make efforts and sacrifices to provide new facilities for instruction. So far as privately managed institutions are directly concerned, the raising of the profession of schoolmaster is largely a question of the liberality of grants, to which reference has been made already. But it should be observed that the higher the esteem in which education is held, the higher will be the possible rate of fees, and the greater therefore the amount of self-support that aided institutions may attain to. Thus if there be judicious regulations for the reduction of aid along with the increase of fees, such grants as will enable managers to give liberal pay to the teachers in their employ, may be ultimately a gain to the State even in a pecuniary point of view, besides serving to encourage private parties to bear a constantly increasing share of the burden of supplying the means of education. Something will also be done to raise the status of teachers in aided institutions, and so to increase the influence of such institutions and the public opinion in their favour, by carrying into full effect Recommendation No. 8 of Chapter V, which would make employment in them in some degree a step towards entering the public service. Encouragement to Normal schools, which we have recommended in Chapter VII, should also contribute its share to increase the esteem in which the profession of education is held, and thus to evoke a larger amount of private enterprise. Again, the suggestion has been made that the status of the lowest class of schoolmasters might be improved by conferring on them, when circumstances are favourable, some other office, such for example

as that of village postmaster. Many things are in the power of the State and may suggest themselves from time to time which, though singly unimportant, will together do much to secure greater honour for the profession of teaching. Everything that does so will in the long run bring to the help of the State a larger amount of private effort in providing the means of education.

549. Approval of private Effort to be clearly shown—Yet another indirect aid which the State and especially the Department may afford to private effort is referred to in the Despatch of 1854 when in laying down the duties of Inspectors it says :—“ They should also assist in the establishment of schools by “ their advice, wherever they may have opportunities of doing so.” The duty is a delicate one. It is also one that officers of the Department cannot be expected to discharge in Provinces where institutions under private managers are not yet looked on, as included within the State system or entitled to the regard which their inclusion within it implies. We hope that Recommendation No. 4 of the present Chapter, and the new classification of schools referred to in Recommendation No. 5 of Chapter VII, will contribute to their being so regarded everywhere. It may be feared that hitherto, in some Provinces, when a gap has been seen to exist in the educational system, the tendency of most officers of the Department has been to advise its being filled up not by an aided but by a departmental school. More than one of the witnesses have drawn attention to the fact that while Directors and Inspectors take the initiative in pressing on the establishment of one class of institutions, it has been left to private and uninfluential persons to meet all the difficulties connected with the establishment of the other. The words of the Despatch point to the necessity for the initiative being often taken in the latter as in the former case by those who represent the State in educational affairs, or at least to the necessity of private persons being made thoroughly to feel that any judicious step for extending or improving the means of education will meet with approval from the State. There may be danger of going to the opposite extreme and leaving too strongly the impression that the Department incurs a direct debt of personal obligation to any one who helps to found a school. There may be some danger also of too many schools being set up in special centres. But Inspectors should be picked men, and when once the line of their duty is made clear, they may be trusted to meet such difficulties with wisdom and with tact. Such action on the part of educational officers in helping to establish, privately-managed institutions obviously implies that those who have established them should be acknowledged as having done some service to the State. The suggestions of some witnesses that dresses or titles of honour, or seats at durbars, should be given to those who have been forward in promoting privately managed education, may perhaps be crude. Still, such suggestions point plainly to the admitted necessity for making it unmistakeably certain that the establishment and management of independent schools is regarded with warm approval by Government and by all who represent it. It is a corollary too from the interest which should be taken by the Department in independent schools, that greater attention should be given to at least the most prominent of them in the annual Reports on Public Instruction. At present, while pages are given to an account of the condition and achievements of the leading departmental institutions, aided institutions, even if much larger and more important, are dismissed in a few lines or have no notice taken of them at all. Readers of the Reports are certain to infer that in the opinion of the Director and of Government, an aided institution, however large or successful, is comparatively worthless. This may appear a small thing in itself, but it is by many small things of this kind that

public opinion is determined; and without a public opinion that is favourable to private effort in education, it is impossible that it should widely or permanently flourish. It is only right to add that in a few of the annual Reports, prominent and appreciative notice is already taken of privately-managed institutions.

550* Establishment of Universities.—Among other indirect aids to private enterprise in education, the Despatch of 1854 draws prominent attention to the establishment of Universities, not as teaching but as examining bodies. Besides providing for setting up a University at each of the Presidency towns, the Despatch expressed the readiness of Government “to sanction the creation “of a University..... where a sufficient number of institutions exist, “from, which properly qualified candidates for degrees could be supplied.” One such additional University has been established in the Punjab, and perhaps the time has come for a further step in the same direction. We have not fully discussed the question, because it seemed doubtful how far it lay within the limits marked out for our enquiries. But we consider it a point worthy of consideration whether a new University for the North-Western Provinces and Oudh and the Central Provinces, should not now be established at Allahabad. To increase intellectual activity by bringing the educational forces at work in a wide area to a common centre, and then to give them independent life and direct influence, is a hopeful means of evoking and strengthening private effort.

551.. Summary.—These must serve as examples of the methods by which the State may indirectly aid in evoking private enterprise in education. In these and similar ways influences may be quietly set to work which will in course of time make the benefits of education keenly and widely felt. When they are so felt and when the free development of privately managed schools is directly as well as indirectly encouraged to the utmost, it is not unreasonable to hope that even in those Provinces where most advantage has been taken of the far-seeing and generous policy enunciated in 1854, every kind of education will advance with far more rapid strides than it has done as yet. It may be expected to advance far more rapidly than it could possibly do by means of State agency alone, even if all available resources were multiplied many times. The main object is to create a public opinion favourable to education and to the warm encouragement of every varied agency that can be induced to help in the work of instructing* according to their probable requirements in life, the many millions who ought to be at school in India. Few men are able long or steadily to carry on even the most beneficent work, when the mass of those around them are hostile or indifferent. Only when all wise educational efforts are viewed with strong approval by the community at large, will agencies of every varied kind be called forth and maintained on a scale proportionate to the vast necessities of the case. In the present social state of India, it devolves on the State and its officials much more largely than in any European country to awaken, and to guide in the right direction, the public opinion that is thus indispensable for the constantly increasing development of private enterprise in education.

Section 12.—Recapitulation of Recommendations.

552. In this last section of the Chapter we shall simply recount the Recommendations we have agreed to make. They stand as follows:—

1. That teachers in **non**-Government institutions be allowed to present

themselves for examination for any grade of certificate required by the grant-in-aid rules without being compelled to attend a Normal school.

2. That in any statement of expenditure required by the grant-in-aid rules from Colleges whose Professors are prevented from receiving fixed salaries by the constitution of the religious societies to which they belong, the expenditure on the maintenance of such Colleges be calculated at the rates current in aided institutions of the same general character.

3. That in schools aided on the results system, variety in the course of instruction be encouraged by grants for special subjects.

4. That greater latitude be given to the managers of aided schools in fixing the course of instruction and the medium through which it is conveyed.

5. That the payment-by-results system be not applied to colleges.

6. That every application for a grant-in-aid receive an official reply, and in case of refusal that the reasons for such refusal be given.

7. That the proximity of a Government or of an aided school be not regarded as of itself a sufficient reason for refusing aid to a non-Government school.

8. That with the object of rendering assistance to schools in the form best suited to the circumstances of each Province and thus to call forth the largest amount of local co-operation, the grant-in-aid rules be revised by the Local Governments in concert with the managers of schools.

9. That, in this revision, the rules be so defined as to avoid any ambiguity as to the amount and duration of the aid to which an institution may be entitled, the conditions of grants for buildings, apparatus, and furniture being clearly stated; and that special reference be had to the complaints that have been made against existing systems, particularly the complaints dwelt upon in this Report.

10. That whilst existing State institutions of the higher order should be maintained in complete efficiency wherever they* are necessary, the improvement and extension of institutions under private managers be the principal care of the Department.

11. That, in ordinary circumstances, the further extension of secondary education in any District be left to the operation of the grant-in-aid system, as soon as that District is provided with an efficient high school, Government or other, along with its necessary feeders.

12. That it be a general principle that the grant-in-aid should depend—

(a) on locality, *i.e.*, that larger proportionate grants be given to schools in backward districts;

(b) on the class of institutions, *i.e.*, that greater proportionate aid be given to those in which a large amount of self-support cannot be expected, *e.g.*, girls' schools and schools for lower castes and backward races.

13- That the following be adopted as general principles to regulate the amount of grants-in-aid except in cases in which Recommendations for special aid have been made:—

(a) That no grant be given to an institution which has become self-supporting by means of fees, and which needs no further development to meet the wants of the locality.

(b) That the amount of State aid (exclusive of scholarships from public funds) do not exceed one-half of the entire expenditure on an institution.

(c) That, as a general rule, this maximum rate of aid be given only to girls' schools, primary schools, and Normal Schools.

14. That, with a view to secure the co-operation of Government and non-Government institutions, the managers of the latter be consulted on matters of general educational interest, and that their students be admitted on equal terms to competition for certificates, scholarships, and other public distinctions.

15* That the Government of Bombay be invited to consider the propriety of converting the Dakshina fellowships into University fellowships with definite duties attached to them, to be tenable for a term of years and open to all candidates irrespective of the College in which they have been trained.

16. That in Bengal the payment from the Mohsin Pund of two-thirds of the fees of Muhammadan students, now confined to Government schools, be extended to Muhammadan students of non-Government schools approved by the Department.

17. That grants be paid without delay when they become due according to the rules.

18. That care be taken lest public examinations become the means of practically imposing the same text-books or curriculum on all schools.

19. That the revised rules for grants-in-aid and any subsequent alterations made in them be not merely published in the official gazettes, but translated into the vernacular, and communicated to the press, to the managers of aided and private institutions, and to all who are likely to help in any way in the spread of education.

20. That the further extension of female education be preferentially promoted by affording liberal aid and encouragement to managers who show their personal interest in the work, and only when such agency is not available by the establishment of schools under the management of the Department or of Local or Municipal Boards.

21. That a periodically increasing provision be made in the educational budget of each Province for the expansion of aided institutions.

22. That when any school or class of schools under departmental management is transferred to a Local or Municipal Board the functions of such board be clearly defined, and that as a general rule its powers include (a) the appointment of teachers qualified under the rules of the Department, (b) the reduction or dismissal of such teachers, subject to the approval of the Department, (c) the selection of the standard and course of instruction subject to the control of the Department, and (d) the determination of rates of fees and of the proportion of free students, subject to the general rules in force.

23. That if in any Province the management of Government schools of secondary instruction be transferred either to Municipalities, or to Local Boards, or to Committees appointed by those bodies, encouragement be given to the subsequent transfer of the schools concerned to the management of associations of private persons combining locally with that object, provided they are able to afford adequate guarantees of permanence and efficiency.

24. That when Local and Municipal Boards have the charge of aiding schools, (1) their powers and duties be clearly defined; (2) that it be declared to be an important part of their duty to make provision for the primary education of the children of the poor; (3) that precautions be taken to secure that any assignment to them from public funds for purposes of education be impartially administered; (4) that an appeal against any refusal of aid lie to the Department.

25. That the system of grants-in-aid be based as hitherto, in accordance with paragraph 53 of the Despatch of 1854, on an entire abstinence from interference with the religious instruction conveyed in the institution assisted;

provided that when the only institution of any particular grade existing in any town or village is an institution in which religious instruction forms a part of the ordinary course, it shall be open to parents to withdraw their children from attendance at such instruction without forfeiting any of the benefits of the institution.

26. That a parent be understood to consent to his child's passing through the full curriculum of the school, unless his intention to withdraw him from religious instruction be intimated at the time of the child's first entering the school, or at the beginning of a subsequent term.

27. That in order to evoke and stimulate local co-operation in the transfer to private management of Government institutions for collegiate or secondary instruction, aid at specially liberal rates be offered for a term of years, wherever necessary, to any local body willing to undertake the management of any such institution under adequate guarantees of permanence and efficiency.

28. That in the event of any Government school or college being transferred to local management, provision be also made for the legal transfer to the new managers of all educational endowments, buildings and other property belonging to such institutions in the hands of Government.

29. That in the event of any Government school or college being transferred to local management, the incumbents of offices under Government be secured in the enjoyment of all their existing rights and privileges,

30. That all Directors of Public Instruction aim at the gradual transfer to local native management of Government schools of secondary instruction (including schools attached to first or second-grade colleges), in every case in which the transfer can be effected without lowering the standard, or diminishing the supply, of education, and without endangering the permanence of the institution transferred.

31. That the fact that any school raises more than 60 per cent, of its entire expenditure from fees be taken as affording a presumption that the transfer of such school to local management can be safely effected.

32. That in dealing with the question of the withdrawal of Government from the management of existing colleges, these colleges be regarded as divided into three classes, *viz.*:-

- (1) Those from which it is premature for Government to consider the propriety of withdrawal; on the ground that they are, and will long continue to be, the institutions on which the higher education of the country mainly depends.
- (2) Those that might be transferred with advantage, as a measure promising useful political results, to bodies of native gentlemen, provided the new managers give satisfactory guarantees that the college will be maintained (1) permanently, (2) in full efficiency, (3) in such a way as to make it adequate for all the wants of the locality.
- (3) Those which have been shown to be unsuccessful, or of which the cost is out of proportion to the utility, and from which Government might advantageously withdraw even with less stringent guarantees for permanent efficiency. Such colleges should be closed if, after due notice, no local body be formed to carry them on with such a grant-in-aid as the rules provide.

33. That the Government of Madras be requested to consider the propriety of dealing with the second-grade Government colleges of that Province on the

principles applicable to the second or third class as may be deemed advisable in each case, in the light of the recommendations made by the Madras Provincial Committee.

34. That the Government of Bombay be requested to consider the propriety of raising the Ahmedabad College to one teaching up to the B.A. standard, and of securing its full efficiency for a term of years, on the condition that after that period it be treated on the principles applicable to the second class.

35. That the Government of Bengal be requested to consider the propriety of dealing with the Rajshahye and Krishnagar Government colleges on the principles applicable to the second class, and with the Colleges at Berhampur, Midnapur, and Chittagong on the principles applicable to the third class, as suggested by the Bengal Provincial Committee.

36. That the bestowal of patronage in Government appointments be so ordered as to offer greater encouragement to high education.

CHAPTER IX.

EDUCATION OF CLASSES REQUIRING SPECIAL TREATMENT,

553. Introductory.—Our attention has been carefully given to certain special classes of the Indian community. These classes include the opposite poles of society, the Chiefs and nobles at the one extreme, and the aboriginal tribes and low castes at the other. Besides these again are the Musalmans; and, confined to no particular caste or sect, those families whose poverty has practically debarred them from all education. The necessity for treating specially these various classes arises partly from the real difficulties which have hitherto hindered any considerable progress, and, in the case of the aboriginal tribes and low castes, from the wide sympathy which their backward condition and slender opportunities have excited. We shall therefore consider (1) the attitude of the native nobility towards education, and the steps taken to second any willingness shown by them to participate in a reformed system; (2) the special disabilities under which the Musalmans have laboured, or have supposed themselves to labour, and the efforts made to meet their wants; (3) the measures which have been suggested for reclaiming the half-civilised aboriginal tribes which still inhabit the forests and mountains of India; (4) the position of low caste Hindus, with special reference to the proposals which our enquiries have led us to make; (5) the claims of those classes whose penury has prevented their accepting education when offered them.

SECTION i.—*Native Chiefs and Noblemen.*

554. The Native Nobility.—An expression which has been already used in this Report, “the downward filtration theory,” is generally understood to mean the theory which advocates the spread of higher education among the few in the hope that it will gradually filter down, and result in the education of the masses. The term has, however, been also applied to the theory which regards the education of the higher classes as a necessary preliminary to any influence upon the lower. In this latter sense, the theory has remained a theory. As yet, education has scarcely “touched these mountain tops;” though here and there are instances of Princes and Chiefs who of their own accord, or from the circumstance of their being placed under the tutelage of British officers, have themselves accepted an education after European methods and endeavoured to make it popular among those subject to their influence. That, as a whole, the native aristocracy should have held aloof is not a matter for wonder. In the first place, the inducement which springs from an unsatisfied desire has been almost entirely absent. The native Prince has his own traditional standard of civilization with which as a rule he is satisfied. His horizon hardly extends beyond his own court. His administration is practical in character, and is bounded rather by what his subjects are used to than what is adapted to the progressive needs of western society. The pleasures which satisfied his forefathers satisfy him, and in his national poetry he finds abundant food for his literary tastes. The native noble is the native Prince in small. If his means are ample for his favourite pursuits, he sees no reason why he should labour with a view to some visionary enjoyment. If they are not, it never occurs

to him that books can supply the want. From his boyhood everything about him combines to thrust education into the back-ground. The influence of the zanana is generally opposed to any enlightenment. Early marriage brings with it hindrances and distractions. The custom of living far away from the larger centres forbids much interest in matters of general importance. In some cases hereditary instinct leads him to regard education as scarcely better than a disgrace. In others, education would be accepted if made easy to obtain and if free from all hazard of social contamination. In the second place, with the exceptions which we shall presently notice, no measures of any importance have been taken to attract these classes towards our education. Arrangements have, indeed, been made in most Provinces for educating minors under the charge of the District Court or the Court of Wards. From various causes, however, little has resulted from such endeavours; and there does not seem much prospect, within any period to which it is worth while to look forward, that the titled classes generally will allow their sons to associate with the students of our ordinary schools and colleges. This conviction has led to the establishment of certain special colleges, of which one of the earliest suggestions was made in 1869 by Captain Walter, then Political Agent at Bhurtpur. In describing the circumstances under which the Maharaja of that State had been brought up, Captain Walter pointed out that we had not "yet thoroughly fathomed the duty that we owe to our feudatories" in the matter of education. Especially in regard to minors under our charge he exhibited the difficulties of our position and the way in which they might be met. "We require," he said, "a college on an extensive scale, with ample accommodation within its walls for a large number of pupils and the followers (few in number of course) who would accompany them. A complete staff of thoroughly educated English gentlemen, not mere book-worms, but men fond of field sports and exercise, would be necessary, and with these should be associated the native gentlemen belonging to the Educational Department rather their guardians, the tutors, should be allowed to find their means rather in the coffers of the State to which they belonged, and the holidays in constant travel all over the continent of India, with an occasional visit to their homes." Captain Walter's idea commended itself to the Government of India, and the opinion of the Agent to the Governor-General in Central India was asked as to the possibility of carrying out such a scheme. In reply General Daly gave his warm assent, recommended that Indore should have a college of the kind suggested, and on behalf of the Maharaja Holkar promised substantial support. About the same time the Earl of Mayo, in an address to the nobles of Rajputana assembled in durbar at Ajmir, "made known his strong desire to establish in that city a college for the education of the sons and relatives of the chiefs, nobles, and principal thakoors of Rajputana, and intimated his intention of communicating to the Chiefs the details of the proposed scheme at an early date." This was followed a little later by a communication from the Government of India to the Agent of the Governor-General in Rajputana, explaining the method in which His Excellency the Viceroy thought an endowment fund might be raised, and the lines on which the proposed college might be constituted. If among the nobles a sum of money could be raised by subscription sufficient to defray the cost of teaching, scholarships, and the annual repairs of the college, the Government would engage to erect the necessary buildings. It was suggested that the governing body should consist of a council of European and native gentlemen, and that its members should, in the first instance, be nominated by the Government. Before long an endowment fund of nearly seven lakhs of rupees had been subscribed by the Chiefs, to which the Government promised an equivalent sum. Of the Government grant* four

lakhs were to go to the erection of the college building, and the interest of the remainder to the salaries of the staff. Government also undertook the erection of residences for the pupils sent in by certain of the States too poor to meet that expense. The first stone of the Government Boarding-House was laid in May 1873, and about the same time other Boarding-Houses whose cost was borne by the Maharajas of Udaipur and Jaipur were also begun. The council, as finally settled, was to consist of all the principal Chiefs of Rajputana and the Political Agents accredited to their States, with the Viceroy as President, and the Agent to the Governor-General in Rajputana as Vice-President. Various hindrances connected with the erection of buildings, the collection of the subscriptions, the settlement of the financial basis, and the formation of the staff of teachers, prevented the opening of the college before the beginning of October 1875. that date a fair number of pupils had joined, including the Maharaja of Alwar, the brother of the Maharaja of Jodhpur, and the adopted heir of the Maharaj Rana of Jhalawar, together with twelve other pupils sent in by the Maharajas of Jaipur and Jodhpur, and eight Government wards. The attainments of the boys were very limited, few of them having any knowledge of English or much knowledge of even their own vernaculars. Nor, which was more surprising/did they show much interest in out-door games or athletics. Even riding was little cared for; boys from different States would not amalgamate* and the general want of spirit was very marked. But before long the attendance at the play-ground, at first enforced, became voluntary; the riding classes quickly grew popular; and cricket, rounders, and football were played with a zest scarcely less keen than shown at an English school. Considerable progress was also made year by year in the standard of instruction, and English, Sanskrit, Hindi, Persian, Urdu, Arithmetic, Algebra, Euclid, History, and Geography are now among the studies of the College. It is not of course desired to make these young Chiefs great scholars, but to encourage in them a healthy tone and manly habits. To this end the training they receive is admirably adapted, while the College has been particularly fortunate in the gentlemen who have held the office of Principal. If at the outset the Chiefs displayed no great alacrity in sending their relatives, and if some of those sent looked with dislike upon their new phase of life, the experience of the past seven years has almost entirely dissipated the earlier reluctance. At the beginning of last year there were sixty-two pupils in residence from the various States of Alwar, Ajmir, Bikanir, Dholpur, Jaipur, Jhalawar, Kishengarh, Kotah, Jfëwar, Marwar, Sirohi, and Tonk; and the punctuau&y with which the pupils returned after the holidays was in marked contrast with the dilatoriness shown in the first few years. All the principal States had erected boarding-houses for their own cadets, and the College building was nearly finished. Similar in character, though upon a smaller scale, is t^ie Rajkumar College in Kathiawar, founded in 1870-71 and now containing thirty-four pupils. The Rajaram College in Kolhapur, the Indore College, the Girasia school at Wadhwan in Kathiawar, and the Talukdari school at Sadra in Gujarat also have special classes for the sons of native Chiefs and large landed proprietors. In Madras and Bengal, there are no separate institutions of this kind. The Canning College at Lucknow has special classes for the sons of talukdars, and the Aligarh College counts several students belonging to the upper classes. Of the immense benefit that has already resulted from the special colleges in existence there can be no doubt, and it is almost equally certain that the system might be considerably extended. We have therefore recommended **that Local governments be invited to consider the question of establishing special colleges or ~~schools~~ for the sons and relatives of Native Chiefs and Noblemen where such , do not now exist.**

SECTION 2.—*Muhammadans.*

555. Early Efforts in the Cause of Muhammadan Education—When in 1782 the Calcutta Madrasa was founded by Warren Hastings, it was designed “to qualify the Muhammadans of Bengal for the public service.....” and to enable them to compete, on more equal terms, with the Hindus “for employment under Government.” Some fifty years later, after the introduction of English into the course of studies, the Council of Education had to confess that “the endeavour to impart a high order of English education” to the Muhammadan community had completely failed. Forty years later again, “the condition of the Muhammadan population of India “as regards education had of late been frequently pressed upon the attention “of the Government of India.” The Muhammadans were not even then competing on equal terms with the Hindus for employment under Government, nor had the endeavour to impart to them a high order of education been attended by any adequate success. Matters were, no doubt, in a more promising condition than in 1832, and, as regards the general spread of education, in a much more promising condition than in 1792. A considerable proportion of Muhammadans were learning English, a large proportion were in schools of one Vind or another. But the higher English education was not cultivated, in any appreciable degree, more extensively than it had been in 1832.

556. Reasons alleged by the Muhammadans for holding aloof from the Education offered in Government Schools.—What the causes were which deterred the Muhammadans from such cultivation was debated even among themselves. While some held that the absence of instruction in the tenets of their faith, and still more the injurious effects of English education in creating a disbelief in religion, were the main obstacles, others, though a small minority, were of opinion that religion had little to do with the question. Some contended that the system of education prevailing in Government schools and colleges corrupted the morals and manners of the pupils, and that for this reason the better classes would not subject their sons to dangerous contact. The small proportion of Muhammadan teachers in Government institutions; the unwillingness of Government educational officers to accept the counsel and co-operation of Muhammadans; numerous minor faults in the Departmental system; the comparatively small progress in real learning made by the pupils in Government schools; the practice among the well-to-do Muhammadans of educating their children at home; the indolence and improvidence too common among them; their hereditary love of the profession of arms; the absence of friendly intercourse between Muhammadans and Englishmen; the unwillingness felt **by** the better born to associate with those lower in the social scale; the poverty nearly general among Muhammadans; the coldness of Government towards the race; the use in Government schools of books whose tone was hostile or scornful towards the Muhammadan religion;—these and a variety of other causes have been put forward at different times by members of the Muhammadan community to account for the scant appreciation which an English education has received at their hands. All such causes may have combined towards a general result, but a candid Muhammadan would probably admit that the most powerful factors are to be found in pride of race, a memory of bygone superiority, religious fears, and a not unnatural attachment to the learning of Islam. But whatever the causes, the fact remained; though the enquiries made in 1871-73 went to prove that except in the matter of the higher education there had been a tendency to exaggerate the backwardness of the Muhammadans.

557, Statistics in 1871-72—The following Table shows the percentage of Muhammadans to the total population in the six more important Provinces of India, and the percentage of Muhammadans under instruction in schools of which the Department had cognisance to the total number of all classes in such schools. In the former case the percentage is 22*8, in the latter 14*7. It must also be borne in mind that in 1870-71 there were among the 167,711,037 inhabitants of the six Provinces about four millions who belonged to the aboriginal tribes, or semi-Hinduised aborigines, and to other non-Aryans hardly touched by our education. Deducting these, and excluding Native States, the Musalmans form about 25 per cent, of the total population

PROVINCES.	Total popula- tion.	Muhammadans.	Percentage.	AT SCHOOL.		
				Total.	Muhamma- dans.	Percentage.
Madras	31,281,177	1,872,214	6	133,689	5,531	4*4
	16,349,206	2,528,344	15*4	53	15,684	8*2
Bengal and Assam	60,467,724	19*553,420	32*3	196,086	28,411	14*4
North-Western Provinces	30,781,204	4,188,751	*3*5	162,619	28,990	17*8
Oudh	11,230,232	1,111,290	9*9	48,926	12,417	25*3
Punjab.....	17,611,498	9,102,488	51*6	68,144	23,783	34*9
TOTAL.	167,711,041	38,356,507	22*8	789,617	114,816	14*5

It will be observed that in the North-Western Provinces, and to a much larger extent in Oudh, the proportion of Muhammadan schoolboys to the total number is greater than the proportion of Muhammadans in the population. In the other Provinces it is much less; the population percentage of the Muhammadans in these Provinces taken together, being over 26 and the school percentage under 10.

558* Suggestions made by Government of India to Local Governments—In addressing the various Local Governments and Administrations, the Government of India in its Resolution No. 300, dated Simla, 7th August 1871, was of opinion;

- (1) That further encouragement should be given to the classical and vernacular languages of the Muhammadans in all Government schools and colleges;
- (2) That in avowedly English schools established in Muhammadan districts, the appointment of qualified Muhammadan English teachers might, with advantage, be encouraged;
- (3) That as in vernacular schools, so in avowedly English schools, assistance might justly be given to Muhammadans by grants-in-aid to create schools of their own;
- (4) That greater encouragement should also be given to the creation of a vernacular literature for the Muhammadans.

559. Measures taken in Madras*—Upon the receipt of the Resolution of the Government of India, the Government of Madras invited the Syndicate of the University to consider whether any steps could be taken by it which would be likely to attract a larger number of Muhammadan under-graduates. In its reply the Syndicate expressed an opinion that “ the regulation of the “ University should not be modified with the view of encouraging a parti-
“ eular section of the population, but that the Musalmans should be treated
“ in precisely the same manner as all other inhabitants of the Madras

“ Presidency,⁹⁹..... and while deploring the undoubted fact of the Muhammadans being behind the Hindus as regards educational progress, they did not see that any steps could be taken by the University to modify this state of things. The view taken by the Director of Public Instruction was not

more encouraging. He considered that the Department had done all that it could for Muhammadan education, and pointed out that a special concession had been made to Musalman students by exempting them from the new regulations regarding fees. The Government of Madras was, however, convinced that the existing scheme of instruction was framed with too exclusive reference to the requirements of Hindu students, and that *Mnh a.m ma/i a.na* were placed at so great a [disadvantage that the wonder was, not that the Muhammadan element in the schools was so small, but that it existed at all. The Governor in Council, therefore, issued orders that the Director should, without delay, "take steps with a view to the establishment of elementary schools at " Arcot and Ellore, and corresponding classes in the existing schools at the " principal centres of the Muhammadan population, such as Trichinopoly, Cud-^c dap ah, Kurnool, and perhaps Mangalore, in which instruction will be given " in the Hindustani language, and Muhammadan boys may thus acquire such a ^{cc} knowledge of the English language and of the elementary branches of in-
"struction as will qualify them for admission into the higher classes of the ^{cc} Zillah and Provincial schools and other similar institutions/5.....Arrangements were also, without loss of time, to be. made for the training of Muhammadan teachers; and instruction in Persian was to be provided in any high school in which there was a sufficient number of Muhammadan students.

560. Results of Measures taken—Coming to the year 1880-81, we find that the measures taken during the interval and the results obtained were as follows: The special schools maintained by Government were 11 in number, 7 of them being Anglo-vernacular middle schools, and 4 Anglo-vernacular primary schools. Nine schools. Anglo-vernacular or vernacular, were maintained by Municipalities, and of aided schools with a special provision for Musalman pupils there were 4 Anglo-vernacular, and **210** vernacular. Other inducements had also been held out to Musalman students. They were admitted in all schools upon payment of half the usual fees, seven scholarships were specially reserved for Musalman candidates at the University examinations; a special Deputy Inspector of Musalman schools had been appointed; an elementary Normal school had been established at Madras; and the University of Madras still continued to allot to the Arabic and Persian languages at its examinations a maximum of marks considerably larger than that carried by vernacular languages. The combined results of these measures were eminently satisfactory. In place of the **5>53*** Musalmans at school in. **1870*7** the returns for 1880-81 give 22,075, or **6*7** per cent, of the total number under instruction, while the percentage of Musalmans to the total population of the Presidency is only 6 per cent. The proportion of boys at school to those of a school-going age is for Muhammadans **15*1**, for Hindus **13*7**. But it is not in numbers only that progress has been made. Taking the results of the middle school examinations we find that the percentage of passed candidates to those examined was, for Brahmans **44*** f^ Hindus not Brahmans, **35*** for Muhammadans **41**. In the lower University examinations, taking only the percentage of successful candidates to those examined, the results for 1880-81 are equally

BACB.	ENTBAUCB.			FIRST ABTS.		
	Examined.	Passed.	Percentage of passed to examined.	Examined.	Passed.	Percentage of passed to examined.
	2,150	670	31*2	486	295	60*7
	1,066	290	27*2	173	86	497
	71	19	26*8	10	6	60*0

In the Entrance examination, the percentage for Hindus other than Brahmans and for Musalmans is thus practically the same. It must be remembered, however, that the proportion of students to population is about three times as great for Hindus (including Brahmans) as for Musalmans. In the latter case, the percentage of passed candidates is even more favourable to the Musalmans; but the proportion of candidates to population is five times as great for Hindus (including Brahmans) as for Musalmans. Of college education, beyond the first examination in Arts, Muhammadans, speaking generally, do not avail themselves at all, though there is no reason to suppose that the general system of education beyond that standard is not as well suited to the Muhammadans as that below it. The attendance of Musalmans in the various institutions, Government, aided, and unaided, as compared with the total attendance, was in 1881-82 as follows

Class of Institutions.	Total Number of Students.	Musalmans.	Percentage.
Colleges,* English P .	1,669	30	17
„ Oriental . ♦ .	38	117	2*4
High. Schools, English . *	4*836	723	3*8
Middle „ „ a .	*8,553	2	*4
„ „ Vernacular . .	511	4>973	7*8
Primary „ English . *	63,295	19,232	6-9
„ „ Vernacular . » .	276,983	2	»« .
High „ English, Girls* , .	2	197 .	»« .
Middle „ „ „ . .	igo	1	»« .
„ „ Vernacular, Girls* % .	197 .	427	*5
Primary „ English „ ft	1,897	2*3	»« .
„ „ Vernacular „ *	18,468	42	2*3
Normal schools for masters . *	799	42	5*2
„ „ mistresses . « .	157
* TOTAL * .	387,595	25,547	6*5

561. Measures taken in Bombay.—Though the Musalmans in the Bombay Presidency are reckoned in the census of 1872 at 2,528,344, or 15*4 per cent, of a total population of 16,349,206, no less than 1,354,781 belong to Sind alone. Excluding that Division the percentage falls to 7*1. Of the total number at school, 15,684, or 8*2 per cent., were Musalmans. As in Madras, therefore, the circumstances which called forth the Resolution of the Government of India existed only on a small scale. Sind, no doubt, was in a very backward state, and the feelings of the Musalman community there were strongly against the study of English. Out of a population of 1,354,781, only 10,115 were in schools known to the Department, and of that number, only 3,225, or 3r8 per cent, of the total number at school, were Musalmans, though their proportion to the rest of the inhabitants was as four to one. Looking at the Presidency as a whole, the indifference of the Musalmans was not so much to education generally as to education in its higher branches. This fact had already engaged the attention of the Department; and enquiries which were set on foot some two years before the issue of the Resolution of the Government of India showed that in the Government colleges and English schools of a total of 16,224, the Musalmans numbered 1,499 only— The distribution was as follows:—

In colleges.....	14
„ high schools . *	59
„ middle schools .	1,426

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TOTAL . 1,499

“ Here,” the Director of Public Instruction remarks, “is the weak point. The Muhammadans avail themselves of our lower schools, but do not rise to the higher schools and colleges. In the list of University graduates there are one Musalman M.A. and two B.A.’s. I think that the reason is to be found not in the poverty of the Muhammadan community (for beggar Brahmans abound in the high school), but in their poverty and depressed social status combined. In this matter the Brahman and Musalman are at opposite poles. Thus we have in Gujarat 10 Brahmans in the colleges and 20 in the high schools for every Musalman, but only 3 Brahmans for every Musalman in the middle class, and not 2 for every Musalman in the lower class schools.” In the Government institutions generally the disproportion of Musalmans to the total number at school was much less than in those aided and inspected. Thus out of 161,283 students in the former, 14,629, or 9*1 per cent., were Musalmans, while the latter had but 968, or 5*2 per cent., of a total of 16,443. The measures taken by the Director, Mr. Peile, to remedy the state of things which his enquiries revealed had reference alike to the higher and the lower grades of education. The University having placed Persian on the list of languages in which examination is held for its degrees, sanction was obtained to the appointment of a Professor of Persian and Arabic in the Elphinstone College, where up to that time it had been impossible, for want of a competent teacher, that those languages should be studied in a scholarly manner. Persian teachers were also appointed in the Elphinstone and Surat High Schools. By the provision of stipends and teachers for Musalmans in the vernacular training college, the foundation was laid of a supply of qualified teachers in vernacular and Musalman schools. In regard to lower education, Mr. Peile pressed upon the Government the necessity of imposing town school-rates for class wants, since the rates then administered by the Education Department belonged almost exclusively to the villages, and the share of the public grant for vernacular education which belonged to the towns was too small to admit of adequate provision for such wants* His representations, though the imposition of these rates was not conceded, at all events secured to Musalman schools a fair share of the vernacular grant. Mr. Peile also drew up a course of Persian instruction for the upper standards in vernacular schools, and for English and high schools. This course was graduated from the beginning up to the matriculation standard, and so arranged as to prepare for the study of Persian as a classic in the Arts Colleges, later on the number of special Musalman schools was considerably increased, and Musalman Deputy Inspectors were appointed to inspect them. “But the most promising feature in connection with the progress of Musalman education during the past decade” [1871 to 1881] “has been the formation and recognition of a Society known as the Anjuman-i-Islam, which it is hoped will in time establish a net-work of secular schools in Bombay. This Society is so important that it was felt advisable to make special rules for its assistance. At present it receives a fixed subsidy of Bs. 500 a month from Government. By the end of the year 1880-81 the Society’s first school was fairly started. Its Hindustani and Anglo-Hindustani Departments, together with a large class of children reading the Knrao, contained in all 102 pupils. Since then the operations of the Society have been extended.”*

562. Results of Measures taken.—In 1871-72 the number of Musalmans at school, according to Mr. Peile’s estimate, was 5,577* about 8*7 per cent, of the total number at school; in 1881-82 the number had risen to 41,548, or 1 v*j per cent, of the total number at school. There were also

* Bombay Provincial Report, page 55.

in the latter year 22,284 Muhammadan children in indigenous schools, which would raise the percentage to 147. The distribution was as follows:—

Class of Institution.	Total number of Students.	Musulmans.	Percentage.
Colleges, English .	475	7	**4
High Schools, English	5>73i	118	2*0
Middle „ „ .	H>257	781	5*4
Primary „ Vernacular .	312,771	39,231	12-5
Middle „ English, Girls'	555	2	'3
Primary „ Vernacular, „	19 9'7	1,366	68
Normal Schools for Masters	480	42	87
„ „ Mistresses.	73	1	i-3
Unaided Indigenous Schools	78,755	22,284	28*2
TOTAL	433,014	63,832	147

563* Measures taken in Bengal.—The following Table shows the proportion of Musalmans to Hindus and others in those colleges and schools of Bengal and Assam which in 1871 furnished returns to the Department:—

	Hindus.	Musulmans.	Others.	Total.
Schools	149>717	28,096	15,489	193-3*2
Arts Colleges	1,199	52	36	1,287
TOTAL	150,916	28,148	15,525	>94-5*9

Thus, while the Musalmans of Bengal were 32*3 per cent, of the total population, their proportion to the total number in schools known to the Department was only 14*4 per cent. “ This result, ” remarks the Director in his Report for 1871-72, “ shows that the education of Musalmans demands “ much careful attention. They have fallen behind the time, and require “ still the inducements held out forty years ago to the whole community, but of “ which the Hindus only availed themselves. Such, however, has been the pro- “ gress of education and the influence of the grant-in-aid system in promoting “ self-help, that the encouragement which was then considered just and right “ won Id now be called downright bribery; still unless the strong inducements “ in general use forty years ago are held out to Musalmans now, I have little hope “ of seeing them drawn to our schools/* But if the number of Musalmans in the schools generally was greatly out of proportion to the total number in the Presidency, still more conspicuous was the disproportion in the colleges, where out of 1,287 students only 52, or 4*04 per cent., belonged to that race. In regard to University distinctions, the Director remarks :—“ During “ the last five years, out of 3,499 candidates who passed the Entrance exa- “ mination from these Provinces, 132, or 3*8 per cent, only, were Musal- “ mans. They ought to have been ten-fold more numerous. Out of 900 “ passed for the First Arts in the same period, Musalmans gained only 11, or 1 *2 “ per cent., and out of 429 passes for the B.A., they gained only 5, or 1 per cent. “ Hence, not only the number of Musalmans who pass the Entrance is less than “ one-tenth what it ought to be, but this painful inferiority steadily increases “ the higher examinations. Taking the candidates generally, out of every 100 “ who pass the Entrance, 26 go on and pass the First Arts, and 12 pass the B.A.; “ but of every 100 Musalmans who pass the Entrance, only 8 pass the Erst

“ and 3 the B.A.” Various causes, some general and some particular, were assigned by the officers consulted as the obstacles which had barred the progress of education, both higher and lower. Among the general causes assigned by them were the apathy of the Musalman race, their pride, their religious exclusiveness, the love of their own literature among those of them who cared for any education at all, the idea so persistently held that education ought to be a free gift. Among the particular causes, a want of sympathy between Hindu teachers and Musalman pupils, a want of consideration in the arrangements of the Education Department, and, perhaps above all, the depressed condition of the bulk of Bengali Musalmans, Musalmans in the first instance by conversion only and not by descent. In different degrees of efficiency and with varying influence according to locality, these causes combined to account for the backwardness of the race. Many of them were of course beyond any immediate removal. Others were a matter of administration, and with these the Government of Bengal promptly endeavoured to deal.

On the question of establishing special schools for Musalmans, the almost unanimous opinion of those consulted was that, with the schools already in existence, there was no sufficient justification for expending State funds in this direction. The vernacular of the mass of Musalmans in Bengal was known to be Bengali, and the ordinary pathsalas of the country were held to supply the proper means of elementary education. Schools of all classes might be made more attractive by increasing the number of Musalmans throughout the various grades of the Department in Musalman districts; and especially by encouraging Musalmans to qualify themselves for the profession of teaching by a course of training in the Normal schools. In all zila schools it was decided that Urdu and Arabic or Persian should be taught up to the standard of the Entrance examination ; and, as a special concession, wherever there was a sufficient demand to justify the supply, there was to be a special class to teach Arabic and Persian after the Musalman fashion. The Persian language had recently been included by the University among the subjects for the S'.A. and B.A. Examinations, and this it was expected would have a powerful effect in increasing the number of college students. A new Code of grant-in-aid rules was about to be drawn up, and advantage would be taken of this to offer specially liberal terms to schools managed by Musalmans. These measures for the most part had reference only to lower education. In respect to the higher, the Musalmans of Bengal had a special grievance in the appropriation to English education of a certain endowment originally assigned to the promotion of oriental (Arabic and Persian) learning. Of that endowment, known as the Mahomed Mohsin Trust, some account has already been given in Chapter VI. To remove a cause for complaint, the Lieutenant-Governor at the instance of the Suppene Government, which added a sum of Us. 50,000 for that purpose to the Provincial assignment for education, declared that the maintenance of the English side of that College should be a charge upon the Provincial funds. It was also decided to devote a portion of the endowment to the oriental side, or Madrasa. and the **remainder** to the foundation of three new Madrasas, to the **establishment** of scholarships, and towards the payment of the fee erf Musalman students in English colleges and schools. The three Madrasas were established at Dacoa, Rajshahye, **and** Chittagong; and each was placed under an Arabic scholar of repute, assisted by a competent staff of maulavis. It was intended that in each of them the full course of the Calcutta Madrasa should in time be ta&Mi En^sh was to be added to the course wherever the papils □ showed a desire to.learmthat language, aad at Dacca a teacher of Engii8h was at ©nee appointed. 3b &e payment of scholarships tenable by

Musalms in Madrasas or in English, colleges and schools there was allotted the sum of Rs. 9,000, while Bs. 18,000 went to the payment of two-thirds of the fees of Muhammadan pupils in Government colleges and schools outside Calcutta, and also to the payment of maulavis in these schools. At the aams time the Calcutta Madrasa was thoroughly reorganised, arrangements were made for the more thorough, teaching of the Arabic and Persian languages with a reasonable amount of Muhammadan law; and the salary of the European Principal was raised to Rs. 1,000 a month. A description of the character and status of this Madrasa has been given elsewhere, and it is therefore unnecessary to enter into particulars here. A few years later, a proposal was made to connect the maktabas throughout Bengal with the institutions for higher Muhammadan education in Calcutta and the mofussil. The attempt, however, was not successful, and it was abandoned in favour of an opposite policy, which was expressed in the hope that the maktabas might be "gradually moulded into true primary schools." Accepting the indigenous schools of the country in the form in which, under the special conditions of locality, they were most popular, the Bengal system endeavoured by the promise of Government support to introduce into the traditional course of study certain subjects of instruction which, should bring the schools so aided into some relation, more or less close, with the general system of education in the Province. The object being to encourage natural and spontaneous movement, it followed that if in any locality the existing system had a religious basis, the religious character of the school should be no bar to its receiving aid, provided that it introduced a certain amount of secular instruction into the course. Many hundreds of maktabas have in this way been admitted into the primary system of Bengal.

564. Results of measures taken—The results of the measures taken at this time are shown, to some extent, by the very considerable increase in the number of Musalms under instruction in 1881-82. Including the Madrasas, in which, there were about 1,000 students, the number then stood as follows:—

Cl&bs of Institutions.	Total number.	Number of Mtiaalmaris.	Percentage.
f English Colleges, <	* ft 2,738	106	3-8
(Oriental . .	. ft 1,089	1,088	99°9
High Schools, „ .	• ♦ 43*747	3,831	8'7
Middle > } . . .	i ft 37*959	5j°32	13*2
Ditto „ Vernacular	• « 56,441	7.735	i3'7
Primary „ „ Boys* .	• ft 880,937	217,216	24*6
High Schools, Girls*, English .	• 184	*
Middle „ „ .	• 340	4	ri
Ditto „ Vernacular	• « 527	6	n
Primary „ ditto . .	• ft 17*452	*>57°	8-9
Normal Schools for Masters	* -% 1,007	55	5'5
» „ Mistresses	• 4i	4«t	»»<
Private Uninspected Schools .	* ft 57*3°5	25,244	44'°
■ j v v . V . . ; Tom,:	. ft 1,099,767	261,887	23-8

The last column is important as showing how rapidly the proportion of Musalman students falls in schools of the higher classes. The proportion in colleges is, indeed, even smaller now than it was in 1871 when, as previously stated, 4*04 per cent, were Musalmans. Still, owing to the ready way in which Musalmans have accepted the primary system of instruction there is a very satisfactory increase in the total number of pupils of that race, which has risen from 28,148 in 1871 to 262,108 (including students in technical schools and colleges) in 1882; the proportion of Musalmans being now 23*8 per cent, against 14*4 in 1871. In each of the Madrasas of Hugli, Dacca, Rajshahye and Chittagong the full Arabic course of the Calcutta Madrasa is taught, and in each also instruction in English is given to all pupils who wish it. In the Dacca Madrasa the course in English is carried up to the Entrance standard. Of 1,089 pupils in the six Madrasas, as many as 322 learn English. The privilege of reading at one-third of the ordinary fees has also, by recent orders of the Government of Bengal, been extended to Muhammadan students of any college in Calcutta, whether Government or other. In the case of non-Government colleges, aided and unaided, the amount of the remissions is paid from the Provincial Revenues.

565. Measures taken in the North-Western Provinces—According to the Director's Report for 1871-72, the proportion of Musalmans to the total number in schools recognised by the Department was 17*8 per cent., and as the proportion of Musalmans to the total population of the Provinces was only 13*5 per cent., it could not be asserted that in regard to education generally they were in a backward state. In the colleges and in the upper classes of the high schools, their numbers were not in the same high proportion, though in the Entrance examination of 1870, 21 out of 175, or 12 per cent., were Musalmans. In the reply made by the Government of the North-Western Provinces to the Resolution of the Government of India, it was maintained that the authorities were doing all that could be reasonably expected for Muhammadan literature and education; and since Persian was in 1871 included among the subjects of the higher University examinations, the Musalmans can hardly complain if they have not taken full advantage of the facilities offered them in respect to the higher as well as the lower education. On the four points of the Resolution *viz.*, the encouragement of the classical and vernacular languages of the Musalmans in all Government schools and colleges, the appointment of Musalman teachers, the assistance of Musalman schools by grants-in-aid, and the encouragement to be given to the creation of a vernacular literature, Mr. Griffith, then officiating as Director, submitted a full and interesting Report. In this he showed that Persian and Arabic held a due place in the colleges and zila schools, that the former was taught in the tahsili and in some of the halkabandi schools, that of 30 Deputy Inspectors 15 were Musalmans, that of the tahsili teachers in the Meerut Circle* where there was the largest proportion of Musalman pupils, 76 were Musalmans against 65 Hindus, that prizes to the value of Rs. 5,000 were annually given to encourage the formation of a vernacular literature, that the better class of Musalman schools already received liberal grants-in-aid, and that the lower or indigenous schools failed to obtain the same assistance only because they resented the visits of Government officials and rejected advice when offered. The unpopularity of Government education with the Musalmans was accounted for on various grounds. Thus ^w the Musalmans of India object to the study [of geography] “ and think that their children are merely wasting time in acquiring information “ about countries which they will never see. They think, too, that Urdu, as a ^c language neither requires nor deserves study by a Musalman, and that Persian

and Arabic are the only tongues which are worthy of their cultivation. Halka-
 andi and tahsili schools are now looked upon with more favour as Persian,
 and, in some cases, Arabic, has been admitted into the scheme of studies; but
 they will not be thoroughly popular with the people of Islam unless great
 preponderance is given to classical studies, and geography, and some other
 subjects are altogether excluded. So violent a change in the system of instruc-
 tion is, of course, out of the question. It would be unfair to the great majority
 of the students, and would not advance the true interests of the minority."

566. Results of Measures taken—The following Table shows the propor-
 tion of Musalmans in 1881-82 to the total number of students in the various
 institutions of the Province:—

Class of Institutions.	Total number of Students.	Musalmans.	Percentage.
Colleges, English .	223	29	13.0
„ Oriental	444	17	3.8
High and middle schools, English -j	4,273	697	16.3
„ } for Boys .	62	» « •	□ ♦ •
„ } j, Girls .	3,267	662	20.2
„ ' „ Vernacular j	6	* • •	« • «
„ w „ Girls .	9^52	2,022	20.5
Primary schools, English	144,373	19,339	13.3
„)) Vernacular .	• •	• •	• •
„ English, for girls .	864	1,616	26.9
„ } Vernacular, „ .	5,990	44	181
Normal schools for Masters .	239	44	181
„ Mistresses	83	• •	• •
TOTAL	169,476	24,426	14.41

567. Independent Efforts made by the Musalmans of the North-Western Provinces.—It appears, then, that neither in the proportion of Mus-
 almans at school in 1871-72* nor in the endeavours since made to encourage a
 further advance was there any great cause for reproach. On the other
 hand, there was great cause for hopeful anticipation in the movement set on
 foot about this time by certain of the Musalman gentry of the Provinces.
 If dissatisfied with the scanty progress made by their race in the higher educa-
 tion, their dissatisfaction was as much with themselves as with the education
 they neglected. But it was not of that kind which contents itself with queru-
 lous fault-finding. Recognising the evil, these Musalman gentlemen were
 determined to discover the remedy; and, led by Maulavi Sayyid Ahmad Khan,
 whose life has been one long devotion to the cause of liberal education*
 they formed themselves into a society with the primary purpose of ascertaining
 the specific objections felt by the Musalman community towards the education
 offered by Government, and of ascertaining the kind of education which
 would be welcomed in its place. It was plain to them that a return to the old
 methods of Oriental instruction was impossible. Much as they might venerate
 the traditions of their forefathers and prize the treasures of a copious
 and elegant literature, the Society held that the only education which could
 bring their race into harmony with the civilisation around them, and so
 restore it to a position of influence, was an education frankly acknowledging
 the advance of science, catholic in its sympathies with all that was admirable
 in the literature, history, and philosophy of other countries, broad in its out-
 lay and exact in its studies. At the first, as might be expected, this very

Was the danger which threatened the undertaking. To appeal to
 the Musalman community at large upon principles so much at variance, not with
 the Muhammadan religion in its essential doctrines, but with the Muhamma-

dan religion as interpreted by the majority of those who held it, was to stir up active antagonism. Well aware of this, the Society yet hoped for ultimate triumph. For some time the support they obtained was grudging. Slowly, however, the opposition slackened in the face of the persistent courage of the yet small band of reformers. Men of eminence, like the late Sir Salar Jung, came forward with support valuable not only in its material shape, but in its influence with those to whom a great name was a great security. The personal character of the leaders of the movement vouched for its disinterested aims. Unreasonable fears gave way before a closer view of the dreaded innovation. Some of the fiercest opponents of early days were converted into warm partisans. Princes and Nobles, Musalman and Hindu alike, enrolled themselves as patrons of the project, and offered munificent endowments to the contemplated college. Nor was liberality altogether wanting on the part of Englishmen. The handsome donation of Rs. 10,000 made by the Earl of Northbrook founded a system of scholarships called after his name; and among other benefactors were Lord Stanley of Alderley, the Earl of Lytton, Sir William Muir and Sir John Strachey. Thirteen years have now passed since the Society met to shape its scheme; and it may well be doubted whether the most sanguine of those who then devoted themselves to their task looked forward to the rapid success which they have lived to witness. The noble college now fast rising at Aligarh bids fair to be the rival of the Government colleges in their best characteristics; while in some of the most important principles of education its superiority is manifest. Of the progress already made we have given some account in Chapter VI. But there are features in the constitution of the Aligarh College which deserve further notice. Among the reasons which are said to have deterred Musalmans from accepting the Government system, we have mentioned the want of all religious instruction and the scant attention paid to religious manners. It is here that the Aligarh College asserts its special religious instruction is a part of the daily exercise, and that the college buildings are to be among the college buildings. The pious Musalman, therefore, has no fear that his son will grow up careless of his ancestral faith or ignorant of religious truth. His mind is at rest, also, on the question of morality and good manners. For residence in college is compulsory upon all students coming from a distance, and a healthy discipline varied by healthy amusement preserves much of the influence of home life, while fostering a manliness of character which home life would fail to give. The importance of the college, however, is not confined to the special nature of the education it affords. Politically its influence is great and will be greater; for it is the first expression of independent Musalman effort which the country has witnessed since it came under British rule. The Aligarh Society has indeed set an example which, if followed to any large extent, will solve the problem of national education; and it is difficult to speak in words of too high praise of those whose labours have been so strenuous, or to overrate the value of the ally which the State has gained in the cause of education and advancement.

568. Measures taken in the Punjab.—On the receipt of the Resolution of the Government of India, enquiries were made as to the extent to which the Muslims of the Province had availed themselves of the education offered them. These enquiries showed that 34.9 per cent, of the total number of pupils under instruction were Musalmans. Taking each class of school separately, the percentage in Government village schools was 38, in higher vernacular schools 30, in middle English schools from 24 to 29, in higher English schools 20, and in Colleges 5. In the Districts east of the river Jhelam the number of Musalman students was almost in exact proportion to the total Musalman population, while in

many of the Districts of the Delhi, Hissar, Ambala and Amritsar Divisions the percentage in schools of all classes was considerably above the ratio which the Musalmans bore to the total population. On the other hand, in the Derajat and Peshawar Divisions, where the Musalmans formed more than 90 per cent, of the whole population, their proportion to the total number at schools was only 55 percent.; and so completely in many parts had education been disregarded by them, that it would be a considerable time before the schools, whether Government or aided, could expect to attract any large number of pupils. Simultaneously with these enquiries, the Government of the Punjab consulted a large number of gentlemen as to the necessity of any special measures, other than those which had already been taken, for the furtherance of education among the Musalmans. Among those consulted were the Members of the Senate of the Punjab University College, and English and Native officers, both Musalman and Hindu. The replies received almost unanimously deprecated any such measures. The Musalman members of the Senate recommended, indeed, a system of special scholarships, and would be glad to see moral and religious instruction given in the Government schools; but they were unanimous in declaring that no religious prejudices existed among the more enlightened classes against the education afforded either in the Government or in the Mission schools, that no change was needed in the course of study, and especially that there should be no restriction upon the study of English. In regard to the establishment of aided schools, the Government of the Punjab pointed out that the matter was very much in the hands of the people themselves; but that if any exertion were made in that direction, it would meet with liberal encouragement from Government, and that in such schools it would be for the managers to provide whatever religious instruction they thought fit. So far as the Musalmans had shown an indifference to the education offered them, that was ascribed by the Government to the disproportionate attention given by them to religious studies, to a preference, as more practical, for the course of study in indigenous schools, and to the impoverishment which was said to have affected most Muhammadan families of note. That, as a class, the Musalmans had been subject to any special disabilities, was emphatically denied; and the conclusion drawn from the general body of evidence went to show that the suggestions made by the Government of India had already been adopted in the Punjab. No special measures, therefore, have since been taken, but the percentage of Musalmans at school has risen since 1871-72 from 34*9 to 38*2, and the increase has been in the higher rather than in the lower class of schools. The following Table gives the statistics for 1881-82:—

Class of Institutions.	Total number of Students.	Musalmans.	Percentage.
Colleges, English	103	*3	12*6
„ Oriental	122	71	58.1
High schools, English	453	91	20'0
„ Vernacular	132	64	48.4
Middle schools, English	2,671	7°3	26.3
„ Vernacular	2,704	935	34'5
Primary schools, English	23,019	7,176	31.1
„ Vernacular	70,641	28,378	4<ri
Middle schools., Girls', English	8		41 •
„ Brawny » „	141	2	1'4
„ Vernacular	9,066	4235	46.7
Normal schools for Masters	220	101	45'9
„ „ Mistresses >	138	59	42.7
Central Training College	58	16	27'5
Total	109,476	41,844	38.2

569. Measures taken in Oudh.—The following Table shows the proportion of Musalmans to the total number at school in 1871-72

Class of Institutions.	Total number of Students.	Musalms.	Percentage
g (Higher schools, English .	2,340	630	27*0
» \ Middle ditto ditto and Vernacular	7,390	2,732	369
g < Lower schools, Vernacular . .	3i>525	6,235	197
m,j Female ditto	1,908	1,072	s6'i
0 I Normal ditto	187	71	38-0
²⁵ (College	720	195	27*0
Q \ Higher schools, English	200	37	18*5
§ i Middle Class, English and Vernacular	3,983	993	24*9
^ I Lower schools. Vernacular	1,222	200	16-3
V. Female schools	451	252	55 8
TOTAL	49,926	12,417	24*8

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This Table is, in itself, enough to show that the education of Musalmans in Oudh had not been neglected, and that the Musalmans were far from indifferent to the advantages held out to them. The course of studies, indeed, was Tjrdu-Persian rather than Hindi-Sanskrit. If any section of the community had cause for complaint, it was the Hindus. But, in reality, they had no grievance; for, Urdu being the language of the Courts, and Government service being to the vast majority alike of Hindus and Musalmans the great incentive to education, the requirements of all were best met by the adoption of Urdu as a medium of instruction. Persian was also taught in the schools, and was a study popular with the better class of Musalmans. For Arabic there seemed to be little or no demand. To know the Koran by heart was, indeed, as in other parts of India, the beginning of wisdom. In most cases it was also the end. Facilities for the study of Arabic as a language were abundantly offered in the Canning College, Lucknow, at which, however, though situated in a city containing 111,397 Muhammadans, or about 9,000 Muhammadan boys of a school-going age, there are but 144 Musalman students.¹ That number, the Director had no doubt, might be increased by hundreds, perhaps by thousands, by the offer of stipends, or even of daily rations of food. Such students, however, he confessed, would not be attracted by the love of Oriental literature, nor would they continue their studies if more advantageous occupation offered itself. Towards the creation of a vernacular literature,⁵⁹ or, as the Director more accurately puts it, the provision of a suitable literature for Musalmans and Hindus, something might be done. But "it seems to me," wrote the Director, "that special machinery for the production of school-books, and for the reward of Native authors, is required. At present no such machinery exists. The Government of India, I believe, are afraid lest the works produced by translators should not be popular and remain unsold. So at present authors can only be encouraged by the purchase of their books, for prizes or special rewards. But there is no machinery even to estimate the value of the books submitted, the books are forwarded to the Director of Public Instruction, and he must, in addition to his other multifarious duties, go over each book presented, and accurately gauge its merits, or he may call upon some of his subordinates as hard-worked as himself to assist in the criticism of books submitted for publication. Moreover, many, nay most, of those who write and adapt books for school use are either not acquainted at all with Western science and art, or at best have but a superficial acquaintance with these subjects. Thus, the books that are printed follow a stereotyped eastern groove, or are unidiomatic and bald versions of some trifling English work. If a special

“office for the examination and publication of works in Hindi, Urdu, Persian and Bengalee were established, and this office were connected with the Educational Departments of Bengal, the North-Western Provinces, and the Punjab, and were under the control of some one of these Departments, I cannot but think that a better class of literature would be produced than under the present system.”

The following is the comparative Table for Oudh in 1881-82 :—

Class of Institutions.	Total number of Students.	Musalmans.	Percentage.
Colleges, English	9 126	7	5*5
„ Oriental	• 113	5i	45' i
High and Middle Schools, English	• 1,081	195	i8-o
3> „ Vernacular	♦ 536	134	25*0
Primary Schools, English	• 4,388	ij3i7	30*0
„ Vernacular	• 45,899	9^449	205
„ Girls', English	• 350	156	44*5
„ „ Vernacular	• 1,722	1,080	62*7
Normal Schools for Masters	• 67	11	16*4
„ for Mistresses	□ 6	* □ *	*..
TOTAL	* 54,288	12,400	22*8

570. Measures taken in other Provinces.—In the Central Provinces the Musalmans formed only 2*5 per cent, of the total population, but they were as fully alive to the importance of education as the rest of the community. In the higher schools, especially, their attendance was good, and orders had already been given that classes should be opened for the study of Arabic and Persian in all zila schools in which there should be a sufficient demand. The Chief Commissioner did not think that any further measures were necessary. In Mysore the general state of Muhammadan education was very backward and unsatisfactory. The Chief Commissioner was of opinion that Hindustani schools should be established wherever a reasonably sufficient number of Muhammadan pupils were forthcoming to attend them; that Hindustani masters should be added to the existing schools of all descriptions wherever a class of pupils in that language could be formed; and that the subject of the provision of suitable school books should be duly considered. The question of Muhammadan education had already engaged the anxious attention of the Chief Commissioner, who had repeatedly urged upon that community the necessity of taking further advantage of the facilities offered them if they wished to keep pace with the progress made by other classes. The Muhammadans of Coorg were generally in very poor circumstances, and quite indifferent to the education of their children. The only measure which the Chief Commissioner thought practicable was to establish an efficient Hindustani class at Merkara in connection with, or independent of, the central school, and the Director of Public Instruction had been instructed to make enquiries as to how this might best be done. The Musalmans of the Assigned Districts of Haidarabad were, it was stated, but few in number and depressed in social and intellectual condition relatively to the other classes of the people. It had always been one of the objects of the Local Administration to introduce into the ranks of the Commission a certain number of Musalmans. Measures had also been recently adopted for promoting the spread of education among that portion of the community, but it was too early to judge of their results.

Memorials regarding Muhammadan Education.—Of the various memorials, on the subject of Muhammadan education that have come before

the Commission, by far the most important is that of the National Muhammadan Association whose head-quarters are at Calcutta. Though having reference on certain points to Bengal alone, the memorial in reality covers nearly the whole ground of Muhammadan grievances, and indicates the methods of redress to which the Musalmans consider themselves entitled. The memorialists begin by setting forth the causes "which have led to "the decadence and ruin of so many Muhammadan families in India." These were principally three. First* the ousting of Persian as the language of official use, and the substitution of English or the vernacular; secondly, the resumption between 1828 and 1846 of the revenue-free grants which under the Mnha.Tnmfldan rule were generally made to men of learning for charitable and pious uses; thirdly, the order passed in 1864 that English alone should be the language of examination for the more coveted appointments in the subordinate civil service. The combination of these causes resulted, according to the Memorialists, in a general impoverishment of the Musalman race, and this impoverishment in its turn has prevented them from obtaining such an education as would fit them for a useful and respectable career. It has been to no purpose, the memorialists urge, that for the " last twenty years the Musalmans have made strenuous " efforts to qualify themselves to enter the lists successfully with the Hindus, for, " with every avenue to public employment already jealously blocked by members " of a different race, it is almost impossible for a Muhammadan candidate to obtain "a footing in any Government office/. The various orders, issued from time to time, that a proper regard should be paid to the claims of Musalmans, had practically been inoperative. One reason of this was that undue importance was attached to University education, an education which, until very recently, had not taken root among the Muhammadans, though many of them possessed "as thorough an acquaintance with the English language as anv^dfiS^Tfcri^ This affected the Musalmans both generally as regarded all ploy, and specially as regarded the subordinate judicial semcfe^ rical inferiority in this branch of the administration wasascrib^the decis^b that no one in Bengal should be appointed a Munsiff unless heN«\$41313»^ of the Calcutta University, to attain which degree it was necessary that the candidate should first have passed the B.A. Examination, Another grievance was the substitution of the Nagari for the Persian character in the Courts of Behar, where, according to the Memorialists, the Hindus were, to all intents and purposes, Musalmans, where the change had proved vexatious to the higher classes, had hindered the administration of justice, had failed to satisfy the advocates of Tfindi, and was for various reasons objectionable to all classes. The memorialists, therefore, asked (1) that "C in the dispensation of State pa- cc tronage no regard should be paid to mere University degrees, but the qualifica- tions of the candidates should be judged by an independent standard. It " will not be considered presumptuous on your memorialists* part if they " venture to submit that stamina and force of character are as necessary in the <c lower as in the higher walks of life, and these qualities can scarcely be cc attested by University examinations55 • (2) that ** separate examinations may " be instituted for appointments to the subordinate judicial service without the u candidates being required to submit to the preliminary condition of passing Cf the Bachelor of Arts Examination of the Calcutta University; {3} that since, C2 owing to the general impoverishment of the Musalman community, " the confiscation of their scholastic foundations, the neglect, ruin and waste u of their charitable endowments," Muhammadan education has * fallen entirely cc into the background, similar facilities should be accorded to the Mufaam- u Tmrlans as are being offered to the Eurasian community. They are fairly " entitled to ask that the large funds appertaining to the various endowments " which still exist under the control and direction of the Government

«should be scrupulously and religiously applied to promote Muhammadan « education;” (4) that “ the order substituting the Nagari character for the Persian in the Behar Courts should be withdrawn j (5) c* that a special Commission should be assembled to examine the whole question of Musalman “ education, and to devise a practical scheme for the purpose.”

572. Opinions of the Local Governments on the Memorial.—This memorial was circulated by the Government of India to the various Local Governments and Administrations. Their replies we shall endeavour to summarise; and, as the memorial has special reference to Bengal, it will be more convenient to take that Province first.

573. Reply from Bengak—In respect to the resumption laws, “ on the harshness of which the memorialists had dwelt at length, it seems to the Lieutenant-Governor that there has been a great deal of very ill-informed declamation ; vague statements regarding their disastrous effects are met by statements equally vague regarding their necessity and the general fairness with which they were conducted. Mr. Rivers Thompson is not prepared to deny that possibly in many cases (and, obviously, the action of Government would «most seriously affect Muhammadan holders of land) the assessments of revenue on land previously held rent-free may have entailed losses both in position and wealth; but the statements of writers who maintain that these proceedings entailed wholesale ruin on the Muhammadan community in general, and the scholastic classes in particular, cannot be suffered to pass without remark. Such statements admit of no proof. They are unsupported by the history either of the origin or of the progress of the resumption proceedings themselves. These proceedings originated chiefly in the misconduct of the native official classes in the early days of British rule. Before the transfer of the sovereignty of Bengal and Behar to the East India Company in 1765, the revenue collector under the Moghul Sovereigns used occasionally to alienate lands in the shape of endowments and rent-free grants. They had, of course, no authority to do this, the ruling power alone being competent to grant away its share in the produce of the land; but it is on good authority believed that these alienations were few in number and limited in extent before the accession to sovereignty of the East India Company. During the first few years of the Company’s administration, however, such invalid grants increased enormously. . . . There can be as little doubt, under the circumstances of the case, that they were due, not to any praiseworthy intention of supporting religion or promoting learning, but to purely selfish motives of personal gain.” Mr. Rivers Thompson then goes on to show that the Government, though repeatedly asserting its right and declaring its intention to assess revenue on these alienated lands, abstained from making good its claim until compelled by financial pressure. It had been asserted by a writer in the *Nineteenth Century*, and repeated in the memorial, that the harshness of the resumption proceedings had left behind a legacy of bitterness, had entailed widespread ruin on the Musalman gentry, and had destroyed the Muhammadan educational system. But, the Lieutenant-Governor continued, “ no details in support of their statement were furnished at the time, and the author of the article in question has since confessed himself unable to supply the omission. Desirous of ascertaining whether official records lent colour to the writer’s assertions, the Lieutenant-Governor consulted the Board of Revenue, who have reported that the assertions in question admit of no verification from the revenue records of Government The fact is always either forgotten or ignored that the result of even the harshest resumption case was not the ^slossession of the holder, but the assessment of revenue on his holding,

“sven that in no case at more than half the prevailing rates.

The holders of rent-free grants possessing titles from the former rulers of “the country were, of course, exempted from the operation of the law.⁵⁵ The Lieutenant - Governor concludes by showing that “if the provisions of the “resumption laws were thus tempered in the case of the holders of large “ grants, the procedure was, so far as the Government was concerned, even “ more lenient in that of petty lakhirajdars” . . . ; that the Musalmans were not treated with exceptional rigour, and that if irretrievable injury was done to Muhammadan progress by the operation of these laws, “the “ enquiry naturally suggests itself why Hindus, equally subjected to the same “ laws, have survived their effects/* On the subject of the supersession of Persian by vernacular tongues in official business, the Lieutenant-Governor did not think it necessary to comment at length. The memorialists had admitted that the measure had been successful, while the statement that this success had been purchased at the expense of the impoverishment of the middle class of Muhammadans was supported by no proof, and was, on the face of it, incredible, being tantamount to the assertion that thirty millions of people had been impoverished because at the very outside some few hundreds of subordinate officials were thrown out of employment- That the Muhammadans of Bengal had fallen behind in the race and yielded place to the Hindus was true; but this was due to failure on their part to take advantage of the opportunities afforded impartially to all subjects of the British Government. The memorialists had stated that at the dawn of the new order of things the Musalmans had “ naturally stood aloof” from the English education offered them. The words quoted were significant, and told of religious repugnance to make terms with modern thought. That the memorialists should, on the one hand, blame the Government for not providing special facilities for instruction in English, while on the other asserting that the Musalmans “naturally stood aloof” was a manifest inconsistency. The grievances of a more specific character advanced in the memorial were two, namely, that University qualifications, which necessarily imply acquaintance with English, are now held essential for admission to the Bench and Bar, and that Urdu had been superseded by Hindi as the official language in Behar. On the former point, while agreeing with the High Court that a knowledge of English was, for a variety of reasons, an indispensable requirement, the Lieutenant-Governor held that for candidates for pleaderships and posts in the Subordinate Judicial system a University degree was not absolutely necessary. Some independent system might, he thought, be devised, to test the legal knowledge of the candidates. Proposals were already under consideration for the establishment of examinations for admission to the subordinate services, and* with necessary changes, examinations for pleaderships might be included in the plan. To the objections against the introduction of Hindi as the official language of Behar, the Lieutenant- Governor considered that a sufficient answer had been given in the success with which the change had been effected. The outcry against it was “ far louder among the Muhammadans, who are not affected by the change, than “ among the supposed sufferers. The change is the logical sequence of that “ exclusively Hindi teaching which has prevailed for nearly ten years with such “ marked success in all the primary patshalas and vernacular schools of Behar, “in the very institutions, that is to say, from **which** the subordinate official “ classes, in whose behalf alone this outcry is raised, are fed- To give effect to “ the wishes of the National Association, therefore, on this point, “ it would be necessary to reverse the existing and approved policy of popular “ education in these Provinces—a course which the memorialists themselves “ would hardly advocate*” The question of affording special facilities for “ particularly by the establishment in Calcutta

of an English college, had for several years been urged upon, and considered by, the Government. It had not, however, appeared until very lately that this particular measure would tend to promote the permanent interests of the Musalmans, but the views of that section of the community now seemed to point very definitely in this direction, and "the elevation of " the Calcutta Madrasa to the status of a college " would be " a legitimate "concession to the reasonable demands of those interested in it." Moreover, the Lieutenant-Governor was convinced by personal observation that neither from an educational nor from a political point of view, was it advisable any longer to maintain the Madrasas established some few years ago at Chittagong, Dacca, Rajshahye and Hugli. The funds on which they subsist might usefully be devoted to the support of a Muhammadan College in Calcutta; such an appropriation would be hailed with satisfaction by all intelligent Musalmans, and the Lieutenant-Governor " would be glad to learn that any action taken in " this direction would meet with the approval of His Excellency the Viceroy " in Council." As to the Muhammadan educational endowments, to which the memorialists referred, the Lieutenant-Governor had every reason to believe that they were administered with 'due care. For the special Commission asked for by the memorialists, the Lieutenant-Governor saw no necessity.

574. Memorandum, on the Memorial.—Before passing on to the replies of the other Local Governments, it will be well to notice here a memorandum on the memorial presented by the Nawab Abdool Luteef, Khan Bahadoor, who for many years has taken an active interest in matters affecting the education of the community to which he belongs. This gentleman demurs to the memorial "being accepted as the exponent of the views of the Muhammadan " community,¹¹ and criticises it on several important points. Though glad that " the decadence of a community once renowned for all that constitutes a " great nation " had once more been brought prominently to notice, he regrets " that this condition is unwisely attributed solely to the action of the British " Government, and not to acts of omission and commission on the part of the " Muhammadans themselves, and, to a great extent, to causes beyond the control " of both the Government and the Muhammadans." He points out that when, as one of the necessary results of the change of political supremacy, the vernaculars took the place of Persian in official business, the Musalmans of Bengal neglected Bengali no less than English, and so shut themselves out from the various appointments in which a knowledge of English is not required. Their neglect of English, which was the chief obstacle to their advancement, was, in a considerable measure, due to the feeling that a Muhammadan "who " desires to be respected in society must be a good Persian scholar and possessed "of at least some knowledge of Arabic." This had burdened them in the race with Hindu competitors. The comparatively small importance attached to Persian in the Government system of education had rendered those who followed it "unfit for harmonising with the orthodox classes of the Muhammadan " community, who ascribed to English education the social defects due entirely " to the absence of a Persian education; moreover, the habits and natures of these "young men have created a strong prejudice against English education in "general." The poverty of the Musalmans, due to the loss of power and patronage and to " the inability of the Muhammadans to recognise the full force " and effect of the said alteration of political power in the country," had in a large number of cases put an English education out of the question. This difficulty had, however, in Bengal been removed to a considerable extent by the recent " action of the Bengal Government in sanctioning the payment (from the " ^phsiniah funds) of two-thirds of the fees of the Muhammadan students who " might pursue their higher studies in any college." The numerical inferiority

of the Musulmans in Government employ was not a trustworthy test, for the memorialists had overlooked “the circumstance that as regards Bengal, where “ the Muhammadans are most numerous, the mass of the Muhammadan population consists of cultivators among some millions of Brahmins and Kayasfchas, “ who, from time immemorial, have enjoyed a superior system of education and> “ in consequence, a passport to public offices.” The Nawab was opposed to the suggestion in the memorial that in the dispensation of State patronage *no* regard should be paid to mere “University degrees. More especially in regard to admission to the High Court Bar, he would not relax the present rule, though for pleaders in the District Courts a less severe examination might be accepted. If, as was asserted, the Musalmans were “handicapped “in consequence of a defective acquaintance with the vernacular language “and accounts/⁹ this might be remedied “by insisting on more attention being “paid to these subjects in primary and secondary schools resorted to by “ Muhammadans, and also by providing a system of apprenticeship in Govern- “ ment offices, whereby the candidates of all nationalities might be trained to “ the discharge of the duties appertaining to the posts to which they may “ aspire.” For a special Commission the Nawab saw no necessity, since the Government was already in possession of ample information at least in regard to Bengal. In dealing with the question of Muhammadan endowments for education, the Government was bound, “ as much in the interests of education “as of religious neutrality, to act in harmony with the views of the “ majority of the Muhammadans, and to respect their religious feelings.” To abolish the present Madrasas and devote the funds to the support of an English college for Musalmans would, in the opinion of the Nawab, be impolitic; and he would, therefore, earnestly suggest that the cost of the college classes in the Calcutta Madrasa should be met from Provincial Funds. The objection of maintaining institutions for the cultivation of the high English was, both politically and intellectually, very great. On this subject he dwelt at considerable length and in much detail. His opinion was entirely opposed to those of gentlemen of the advanced school. In addressing an enlightened and parental Government, one who was disposed to respect the cherished feelings and revered institutions of its subjects, “and I feel no apprehension as to the result of my appeal.”

575. Reply from Madras—The replies from the other Provinces may be more briefly summarised. In Madras the wants of the Musalmans were fairly provided for, and this class was more favoured than even the Eurasians. In most parts of the Province the Musalman population was so intimately connected with the Hindu community that, except in the elementary stage, it was better that boys of both races should pursue their studies side by side; not only because such a system facilitated their acquisition of the English language and of knowledge generally, but on account of the advantages of such a scheme. It would be very undesirable to adopt or extend measures likely to have a retarding effect on the process of race approximation, which had already softened the antagonistic feelings between the two communities. During the last two years there had not been a single application from any Musalman body for the establishment of a special school. The Musalmans of Madras could not generally be described as impoverished, their scholastic endowments had not been confiscated, nor had their charitable endowments been ruined and wasted. The system of instruction pursued seemed to be wholly in accord with the views of the memorialists, and there were no circumstances in the Madras Presidency which appeared to call for the appointment of a special Commission.

576. Reply from Bombay—As in Madras, the proportion of Musalmans in Bombay is very small, and the circumstances and history of the Presidency are “so totally different from those of the Eastern Provinces of the Mogul Emperors of Delhi, to which the memorialists refer, that no comparison can be made between them, and the memorialists’ remarks are, for this reason, quite inappropriate as applied to Western India generally/’ There “the British succeeded Hindu rulers, not Muhammadan, and certainly the Muhammadan chances of employment now are better than they were in the days of Hindu dynasties. Sind, of course, was an exception; the dynasty that was overthrown was Muhammadan, but it was foreign, and was supported entirely by foreign chiefs, to whom large grants of land were made to enable them to keep up troops. Even, however, under these rulers a very large part of the State business was in the hands of the Hindu amils who ... performed almost all the clerical duties in the time of the Mirs.” On the subject of the needs and claims of the Musalman community, the Musalmans of Bombay would scarcely endorse the pie#, of helplessness made by the Calcutta memorialists. If the number in Government employ was small, the reason was to be found, not in any disinclination on the part of those who exercised patronage to enrol Musalmans, nor again in the overpowering influence of Hindu advisers and subordinates, for the Government was well aware of the administrative advantage of associating men of different races in every department of public business; but to the unwillingness of the Musalman mind to submit to the educational tests which qualified for entrance into the public service. There was, however, no reason for believing that the Musalmans would continue to hold aloof from the present system, and it would be to their, lasting prejudice if they were encouraged to do so by rules permitting them to enter the public service on easier terms than their Hindu and Parsi fellow-subjects. It was represented that the anxiety of the Government of Bombay to induce the Musalman community to educate itself had been shown by **special** encouragements, and the disabilities of which the memorialists complained in regard to admission to the subordinate judicial service did not exist in Bombay. In Sind, the only Province of the Presidency in which the Musalman population was large, the inclination was perhaps to give them a preference hardly justified by their qualifications. . By the Education Department special schools and classes had been opened wherever Musalmans could be persuaded to attend, and Musalman Deputy Inspectors had been appointed to inspect those schools. There was, however, still a considerable amount of apathy among the race, and it was difficult to rouse them to any desire for learning.

577. Reply from the North-Western Provinces and Oudh Upon enquiries being made as to the proportion of Musalmans to Hindus in these Provinces, it was found that they were as 13*25 to 86*75. Of literate persons in the whole male population the proportion was 5 74 per cent., that of the Musalmans being 4*4.1 against 5*05 amongst the Hindus. Of 54,130 native officials 35,302 were Hindus and 18,828 Musalmans, or 65*22 per cent, of the former and 34*78 of the latter. The allegation, therefore, of the memorialists as to the exclusion of Musalmans from a fair share of Government patronage did not apply to these Provinces. Of the better-paid appointments, such as Deputy Collectorships, the Musalmans had in many years held an actual majority^ and always a share out of all proportion to their total population. In 1882 there were 95 Musalmans against 76 Hindu tahsildars; while of 84 Subordinate Judges **and** Munsiffs **47** were Musalmans and. only 37 Hindus. Of 5 7 Subordinate Judges and Munsiffs appointed since 1866, twenty-nine were Muhammadans, and of Munsiffs appointed during the five years ending the 31st March 1882, twelve were Musalmans and only fen Hindus. There was nothing in the rules in force as to the quali-

fications demanded for those appointments which^ in the opinion of the High Court, unfavourably affected Musalmans. Upon the question of relaxing or altering the present educational tests, the opinions of the officers consulted vere unanimously in the negative; « while the fact that out of the male “ Muhammadan population the proportion under instruction is 2*18 per cent., “against 1*33 among the Hindus and 1-48 per cent, in the whole male population, may be taken to indicate that the Muhammadans, on the whole, “take no less advantage of the existing system of public education than the “Hindus.” There were no Musalman endowments, charitable or scholastic, which had been wasted or confiscated. It was questionable whether the best interests of the Musalmans would be served by special provision for their education. “But the Government of these Provinces has always shown an “ earnest desire to aid and encourage real education among the Muhammadans; “ and any movement among the Muhammadans towards this end has received, “and will receive, substantial support, upon the general principles laid down “ for the State co-operation. The liberal support given to the Aligarh College “ was an instance in point.”

578. Reply from the Punjab—According to the last Punjab Civil List the appointments held by the Hindu and Muhammadan officials of the higher classes in the Punjab were distributed as follows:—

Appointments.	Muhammadans.	Hindus.
Extra Assistant Commissioners 4 . . . *	54	38
Tahsildars _k	50	72
Munsiffs	28	46
Superintendents of Settlement	9	15
Total Administrative and Judicial appointments . .	141	171
Executive and Assistant Engineers, Public Works Department.	2	18
Assistant Surgeons	13	52
Professors and Headmasters, Educational Department	4	22
Forest Rangers, Forest Department . . .	8	9
GRAND TOTAL	168	272

Thus, in the highest appointments which are open to natives, and for which no examination test is required, the Musalmans were in excess of the Hindus; in the next class, in which the fitness of candidates is to a certain extent tested by examination, the Musalmans, though less numerous than the Hindus, held a considerable proportion of the appointments; while in those which require a special and technical education, the Musalmans formed only an insignificant minority. In open professions the smallness of their numbers was even more striking; and if the energy displayed respectively by Hindus and Musalmans in the scientific and legal professions were taken as a test of their respective fitness, it would appear that the Government, so far from being behind-hand in affording to Musalman opportunities to distinguish themselves as servants of the State, had in reality bestowed upon them an undue share of its patronage. The failure of the Musalmans to secure high appointments in the Education Department was owing to their want of knowledge of English. But there was no rule in the Punjab demanding a knowledge of that language as a qualification for the post of Extra Assistant Commissioner, Tahsildar, or Munsif; and this fact had contributed in a large measure to swell the share of such appointments held by Musalmans.

The Lieutenant-Governor saw no need for a Commission such as that

advocated in the memorial- Most of the arguments there used had been met by anticipation in measures already devised; by result grants-in-aid, by throwing open the University scholarships to vernacular as to other students, by a scheme for the award of open scholarships to boys distinguishing themselves in the Primary and Middle School Examinations, and by other measures detailed in the last review of education in the Punjab. As to endowments the only one of importance was that of the Itimad-ud-daula Pund at Delhi, and this was managed by a Committee composed mainly of native gentlemen, presided over by the Commissioner of the Division. ¹⁵ The general conclusion which the lieutenant-Governor would draw, after a full consideration of the prayers of the memorialists, is that the Muhammadan community, and not the Government, is responsible for the state of things depicted in the memorial ... It is not for the Government to confer special privileges upon any one class of its subjects when they have failed to avail themselves of the opportunities freely offered to all." The Anjuman-i-Islamiya, Lahore, to whom the memorial was sent for an expression of their opinion, while admitting that in many ways the Musalmans had themselves to thank for the backwardness in education, were at one with the memorialists on several points. Thus, they maintained that "with every avenue to public employment already jealously blocked up by members of a different race, it is almost impossible for a Muhammadan candidate to obtain a footing in any Government office if they supported the allegation that in the dispensation of State patronage impartiality had not been observed, and complained that due provision had not been made for Musalman graduates and under-graduates; they asserted that the community had suffered considerably from the resumption proceedings, though these came into operation about a century before the British took possession of the country, that the poverty of the Musalmans was even greater in the Punjab than in Bengal, and that this poverty obliged them to take their sons away from school at an early age; they considered that the condition of the Musalmans justified measures similar to those adopted in behalf of the Eurasians; they trusted that no such change of Hindi for Urdu as had taken place in Behar would be permitted in the Punjab, though interested persons were pressing for such a measure; and they were of opinion that the special Commission for which the memorialists prayed was one which should be appointed.

579. Replies from the other Provinces.—In the Central Provinces the number of Musalmans is very small, but the proportion of them in Government employ is reported to be ten times as great as that of the Hindus, and the share of judicial offices held by them to bear a still larger ratio to their numbers. In the schools, while the Hindus are only 3 '46 per cent., the Musalmans are 8*35. No academical degree is required for admission to the bar, that admission being determined by a local examination. In Assam the Musalmans are reported to be by no means impoverished; they have received as large a share of Government patronage as they are entitled to, and in the eyes of most officers, if two persons, a Hindu and a Muhammadan, having equal qualifications, are candidates for the same office, it is, on the whole, an advantage to be a Muhammadan. That they are backward in point of education is, no doubt, true; but every facility is afforded them, and special encouragements have of late been held out to them. What is wanting is the desire to profit by these facilities, and the grant of any concession such as the memorialists ask for would probably check the growth of such desire- In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, the Musalmans are said to hold their full share of the higher appointments; while in the schools their proportion is stated to be larger than that of Hindus.

»demand for a knowledge of English from candidates for public service to some extent affected the Musalmans injuriously; but English is

spreading so fast that in a few years it will be quite an exception for any one of the classes that seek Government employ not to possess it. The position of Musalmans generally has been improving of late years. Coorg has only 12,541 Musalmans, the majority of whom are engaged in trade, agriculture, and menial service. They evince but little desire to learn English, though special schools for their benefit are supported by the administration.

580. Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission,—In the foregoing pages, we have preferred to reproduce the statements made with regard to the condition of the Muhammadans in the several Provinces, rather than to attempt generalisations of our own. The wide differences in the circumstances of the Musalmans in the three Presidencies render such an attempt hazardous. But apart from the social and historical conditions of the Muhammadan community in India, there are causes of a strictly educational character which heavily weight it in the race of life. The teaching of the mosque must precede the lessons of the school. The one object of a young Hindu is to obtain an education which will fit him for an official or a professional career. But before the young Muhammadan is allowed to turn his thoughts to secular instruction, he must commonly pass some years in going through a course of sacred learning. The Muhammadan boy, therefore, enters school later than the Hindu. In the second place, he very often leaves school at an earlier age. The Muhammadan parent belonging to the better classes is usually poorer than the Hindu parent in a corresponding social position. He cannot afford to give his son so complete an education. In the third place, irrespectively of his worldly means, the Muhammadan parent often chooses for his son while at school an education which will secure for him an honoured place among the learned of his own community, rather than one which will command a success in the modern professions or in official life. The years which the young Hindu gives to Mathematics in a public school, the young Muhammadan devotes to Arabic and the Law and Theology of Islam. When an Anijca'm is completed, it is to the vocation of a man of learning, ramir th^fe&^a^re profitable professions, that the thoughts of a promising naturally turn. The above are the three principal causes of an educational character which retard the prosperity of the Musalmans. It would be beyond the province of a strictly Educational Report to attempt generalisations based upon the social or historical conditions which affect the Muhammadan community in India.

The Recommendations we proceed to make have been framed, we believe, not merely with a regard to justice, but with a leaning towards generosity. They are based not more upon the suggestions contained in the Provincial Reports than upon the evidence of witnesses and the representations of public bodies. They deal, we think, with every form of complaint that is grounded in fact, and they contemplate the various circumstances of various localities. Few of them, indeed, are of general application; many of them, we trust, will before long be rendered obsolete. Special encouragement to any class is in itself an evil; and it will be a sore reproach to the Musalmans if the pride they have shown in other matters does not stir them up to a course of honourable activity to a determination that whatever their backwardness in the past, they will not suffer themselves to be outstripped in the future; to a conviction that self-help and self-sacrifice are at once nobler principles of conduct and surer paths to worldly success than sectarian reserve or the hope of exceptional indulgence. We have spoken of the causes; we here accept the fact that, at all events in many parts of the country, the Musalmans have fallen behind the rest of the population; we therefore recommend (1) *that the special encour-*

agement of Muhammadan education be regarded as a legitimate charge on Local, on Municipal, and on Provincial Funds. The Muhammadan indigenous schools which are found in all parts of the country are established on a purely religious basis and in most cases impart an education of the most elementary character. In order to encourage a wider utility, we recommend

(2) that indigenous Muhammadan schools be liberally encouraged to add purely secular subjects to their course of instruction. As the instruction given in Muhammadan primary schools differs considerably from that in the ordinary primary schools, we recommend (3) that special standards for Muhammadan primary schools be prescribed. In regard to the medium of instruction in primary and middle schools, it appears that even in places where Hindustani is not the vernacular of the people, Muhammadans earnestly desire that their children should be educated in that language, and we therefore recommend (4) that Hindustani be the principal medium for imparting instruction to Muhammadans in primary and middle schools, except in localities where the Muhammadan community desire that some other language be adopted. In order that Muhammadans may be enabled to qualify for the lower grades of the public service, we recommend (5) that the official vernacular, in places where it is not Hindustani, be added as a voluntary subject to the curriculum of primary and middle schools for Muhammadans maintained from public funds; and that arithmetic and accounts be taught through the medium of that vernacular. To meet the complaint made in some parts of the country that due encouragement is not given to the language and literature of the Muhammadans, and that this circumstance has operated as one of the causes which have kept that community aloof from the Government system of education, we recommend (6) that in localities where Muhammadans form a fair proportion of the population provision be made in middle and high schools maintained from public funds for imparting instruction in the Hindustani and Persian languages. It has been found that whilst Muhammadans in many places form a fair proportion of the students learning English, their number decreases as the standard of instruction rises; we therefore recommend (7) that higher English education for Muhammadans, being the kind of education in which that community needs special help be liberally encouraged. It has been submitted with much force that the poverty of the Muhammadans is also one of the main reasons why education has not made satisfactory progress in that community; we therefore recommend (8) that where necessary a graduated system of special scholarships for Muhammadans be established; to be awarded (a) in primary schools, and tenable in middle schools; (5) in middle schools, and tenable in high schools; (<?) on the results of the Matriculation and First Arts examinations, and tenable in colleges: also (9) that in all classes of schools maintained from public funds a certain proportion of free studentships be expressly reserved for Muhammadan students. Complaints having been made that Muhammadan educational endowments have not always been applied to their proper uses, we recommend (10) that in places where educational endowments for the benefit of Muhammadans exist and are under the management of Government the funds arising from such endowments be devoted to the advancement of education among Muhammadans exclusively. And further, in order that Muhammadan educational endowments may be utilised to the utmost, we recommend (11) that where Muhammadan endowments exist, and are under the management of private individuals or bodies, inducements by liberal grants-in-aid be offered to them to establish English-teaching schools or colleges on the grant-in-aid system. The employment of Muhammadans as teachers and officers among Muhammadans will in our opinion largely tend to popularise education among that community and enable the Department to

understand the special needs and wishes of the *Muhajir* • we therefore recommend (12) that, where necessary, Normal schools or classes for the training of Muhammadan teachers be established; (13) that wherever instruction is given in Muhammadan schools through the medium of *Jalundustani*, endeavours be made to secure, as far as possible, Muhammadan teachers to give such instruction ^ and (14) that Muhammadan inspecting officers be employed more largely than hitherto for the inspection of primary schools for Muhammadans. Another useful means of spreading knowledge among the Muhammadans will be the recognition and encouragement by the State of such associations as the Anjuman-i-Islam in Bombay and the Anjuman-i-Islamiya in Lahore; we therefore recommend (15) that associations for the promotion of Muhammadan education be recognised and encouraged. In order to secure the continuous attention of the Education Department to the subject of Muhammadan education and to prevent the claims of the Muhammadans for special treatment from being overlooked, we recommend (16) that in the annual Reports on Public Instruction a special section be devoted to Muhammadan education. In certain Provinces the backwardness of the Muhammadans in education has prevented them from obtaining any considerable share of appointments in the public service. But it has also been made a subject of complaint that even in places where qualified Muhammadans are available, their services are not duly utilised by Government officers: we therefore recommend (17) that the attention of Local Governments be invited to the question of the proportion in which patronage is distributed among educated Muhammadans and others,

581. Application of Recommendations regarding Muhammadans to other Races.—We have so far been dealing exclusively with the case of Muhammadans, but we do not overlook the fact that there may be other races in whose claims to special treatment are based upon circumstances similar to those of the Muhammadans. Such races deserve the same consideration which our Recommendations are intended to secure for the more important and numerous class of society whose condition has been reviewed. The Raja of Bhiaga has pleaded the cause of the Rajputs, and the claims of other races may hereafter be put forward. Such claims can only be fully considered by the local Governments, who will be in a position to weigh the advantages and disadvantages of special treatment. In order that the matter may not be overlooked, we recommend that the *principles embodied in the Recommendations given above be equally applicable to any other races with similar antecedents, whose education is on the same level with that of Muhammadans.*

SECTION 3.—*The Aboriginal Races.*

582- The aboriginal Tribes of India.—The term "aborigines," by which a large section of *Indian* society is known, is but a loose and indefinite expression for distinguishing those races which have not adopted the civilisations or the creeds of the higher races inhabiting India. In a few Districts they form the *Tribes* of the population. Elsewhere they consist of small isolated communities dwelling in the midst of more civilised races. Their numbers cannot be exactly stated. Those who have descended from the hills, or have exchanged their forest-home for the villages of the plain, have not always been separated in the census returns from the other classes of rural society with whom they live intermixed, and no very exact line of demarcation can be drawn between them and their Hindu neighbours. In the course of a hundred generations the various *Tribal* communities have been largely influenced by Aryan beliefs and customs. It is only those descendants of the earlier tribes who, from one cause or another, have not submitted to the influences of Aryan

civilisation, that in the present Chapter are treated as aboriginal races. These can easily be distinguished from the Hinduised population; while between the aborigines, who have become partially affected by Hindu custom and feeling, and the Hindus, there is a gradual shading off which renders it difficult to determine according to any principles of classification whether the classes referred to should be placed on this or on the other side of the dividing line. It is estimated that the races of India that are more or less aboriginal in character, exceed forty millions; but the adoption of the stricter principle of classification, which has been followed in the last census, gives a population of only 6[^] millions of aborigines in India. Even this calculation has been arrived at by the adoption of a classification which is not uniform for the various Provinces of India. Thus in Bombay the census officer writes: "The " substratum of the agricultural class in Gujarat, the Eolis of the ghats and "coast, and the hereditary watchmen and village servants of the Deccan and "North Kama tic, such as the Hamoshi and Berad, are taken to be Hindus, as " are the depressed classes of all parts of the country, though history and tradi- " tion indicate their aboriginal origin, The aboriginal form of religion is under " this interpretation restricted to the tribes still inhabiting the forest and those " directly connected with these tribes." In the Ctentral Provinces, however, many **aboriginal** tribes are still classified as such, notwithstanding that they have exchanged the forest and mountain for a life of agrioulture in the plains. Of the millions of aborigines returned by the census officers, 1,160,000 lie beyond the limits assigned to the enquiries of the Oommission, as they are found in the Native States of Rajputana, Central India, and Baroda. Of the rest, 2[^] millions inhabit Bengal and Assam, 930,000 belong to Bombay,, and 1,750,000 are to be found in the Central Provinces. The problem of educating the distinctly aboriginal races of India therefore practically concerns only the three Provinces of Bengal, Bombay, and the Central Provinces.

583. Their Want of Education.—The distribution of the purely aboriginal population given above corresponds, as might be expected, with the physical features of the territories in which they are found. The chains of the mountain systems of India, and the thick forests which lie at their base, are the homes of the aboriginal races, of which the most important tribes are the Santhals, Kola, Gonds, Korkus, Khonds, and Bhils. Many however of the Gonds hold land in the Central Provinces and live in the plains, whilst the Korkus rarely venture beyond the limits of the hills. The general absence of education of even the most elementary kind amongst these races may be inferred from the following figures. In Bombay for several years the half-civilised hill tribes were not affected in any perceptible degree by the departmental schools, and in 1871-72 there were but 1,017 children of these tribes in the public primary schools, a number which in 1881-82 had risen only to 2,738 in all classes of schools, whether aided, inspected or departmental. This gives a percentage of only 1 '9 of the aboriginal population of -school-going age who were at primary schools. In Bengal and Assam the education of the aboriginal tribes has been partly taken up by the direct instrumentality of the State, but chiefly by the missionary societies with help and encouragement from Government. In 1880-81, there were 2,336 Santhals, 154 Paharias, 893 Khonds, 1,843 the tribes inhabiting the Khasia and Jaintia hills, 339 Ulughs and Chukmas, and 7,513 Kols, at various schools in Bengal, yielding a total of 13,078 pupils at school, including 1,400 Christians. Of the 13,078 children of these races at school in that year, 464 (of whom 236 are Christians) were at secondary schools, 195 (of whom 179 are Christians) were at Normal schools, and 26 (Christians) at industrial schools. A special scheme

for the education of the Santhals connected closely with their village organization, and under the control of the Department, has recently been sanctioned, but has not yet come into operation. In Chapter IV, we have reviewed the operations of the Bengal Department for the year 1881-82. We have shown that while missionary enterprise has been freely encouraged, the direct instrumentality of the Department has not been neglected. Kols, Santhals, Paharias, Khasis, and the semi-Burmese tribes in Chittagong are attending primary schools as well as a few institutions of a higher order. In 1881-1882, the number of aboriginal pupils known to the Department in Bengal and Assam fell little short of 24,000. We have already mentioned the endeavours made by the Education Department in the Central Provinces, in concert with the Forest Officers, to institute an industrial school for the Korkus. For want of European superintendence the experiment proved unsuccessful, but the educational officers have not wholly neglected other means, and although their success has been small, still there were in 1881-82 1,055 children of the aboriginal tribes at schools, or about 1 in 1,453 of their total number. Of the pupils 7 only were in middle schools. In the adjoining Province of the Haidarabad Assigned Districts not even an attempt appears to have been made to attract the hill tribes to school. This review shows that it is in Bengal that the greatest progress has been attained chiefly through the exertions of missionary societies. In Bombay the Department has secured some small success in primary education only; but whereas in the Gujarat Division 4 per thousand of the aboriginal races have learnt or are learning to read and write, in the Konkan one in two thousand, and in the Central and North-Eastern Divisions only one in a thousand of the aboriginal population are returned as either instructed or under instruction. In the other Provinces hardly even a beginning can be recorded. It is clear therefore that the efforts of Government have hitherto failed to give education to the aboriginal races of India, and that special measures are required to overcome the difficulties which surround the question.

584. The Difficulties attending the Education of Aborigines.-The general character of the aboriginal races, as classified according to the census returns adopted by us, is very distinct. Those who still avoid contact with the plains are the most difficult to deal with, as will appear from a description of the life which they lead. A few of them cultivate patches of the hill sides which they lay bare of timber and undergrowth, merely setting fire to the fellings and growing coarse grain in the ashes without any attempt to dig the soil. Others keep herds of cattle and buffaloes which they graze in the forests, living upon their milk, and exchanging what they do not require with other sections of the forest community for the grain which they grow. These herdsmen have little commerce with the plains. A few tribes live by industrial pursuits, smelting iron from the ores found in the laterite on the mountains, and producing the iron arrow points, the long sharp pointed spears and small axes which nearly every hill man carries with him not only for domestic purposes and for cutting wood, but also as a protection against wild beasts. A still larger section live by the chase, pursuing deer and even tigers and panthers with their rough weapons, shooting birds with the bow and arrow, not disdaining even squirrels, rats, and dead animals for their ordinary meals. All these tribes eat berries and roots, and the excessive mortality and sickness among them are often attributed to the unwholesome

character of their ordinary food. Many of them fall victims to the attacks of wild beasts, to the bites of poisonous snakes, and to the constant malaria and fever to which the heavy rainfall gives rise. They are patient, inured to suffering, and naturally truthful. But the most universal features in their character are their shyness and confirmed dislike of any settled occupation.

Their poverty is extreme, and as they have little commerce with the villagers of the plain, and carry on their own simple transactions with each other by barter, there is no effective desire among them for the most elementary education. "With them contact with the outer world must be the precursor of schools. Amidst such a population, separated as their settlements are by dense forests or steep mountains, the difficulties of pioneering education are extreme.

The Gonds of the Central Provinces who number more than a millions are a fair type of an aboriginal population who are becoming mixed up with the Hindu population of the plains and yet have retained some of their distinctive characteristics. They have already adopted the system of caste and will not eat with a stranger. They cling to their forest pursuits, but also cultivate land and carry on trade with their neighbours. But they are unthrifty and addicted to barbaric display and entertainments. Though mixing with the Hindus they still sacrifice and eat bullocks; and they worship the powers of evil, the spirits of their fathers, and the weapons and creatures of the chase. They are extremely backward and despise education. These people have no money for paying the smallest fees; they can only be attracted by those who have won their sympathy, and the ordinary village school-master considers them beneath his notice. Their language also is in a state of fusion and transition : in most cases it has never been reduced to writing. Even tribes which call themselves by the same name can hardly understand each other's language. Fraud being almost unknown among them, they set no value on a knowledge of accounts, and their commerce is a mere matter of barter.

Recognising these difficulties, we feel that advantage must be taken of every agency which can be employed in the task' of instructing the aboriginal races. The work cannot in all cases be left until private bodies come forward to take it up. It is with the tribes living on the fringe of civilisation that the best chances, of success are offered. If any schools are now situated near their settlements, special encouragement should be given to the instruction of aboriginal children in them. No fees should be charged. If a few boys of the hill tribes are thus brought under instruction, the educational agency, whether Government or other, may be able to push forward its schools within the territory of the tribes in question. This gradual measure will probably succeed better than the attempt to plant at once a system of schools within their territories before they have learnt the meaning of education or become accustomed to the notion of schools. At the same time, if any private agency is prepared to go into the midst of the tribes and to offer them education, we think that it should be liberally aided in carrying out its object. Experience has shown the necessity for sympathy with these simple forest people; and their improvement offers a special field for missionary and other philanthropic activity. It is also desirable that they should be supplied with school-masters of their own race, who might be trained for a short period in our Normal schools. The subjects taught must be of the most elementary character. If any tribe possesses a vernacular of its own which has been reduced to writing, we would not discourage its use; but we believe that it will often be more beneficial to the interests of the aborigines that they should be brought to adopt the vernacular of their civilised neighbours. With them a practical education will be that which will help to remove their isolation and bring them into commerce with their neighbours.

585. Recommendations regarding the Provision of Schools.—In view of their undoubted poverty, we recommend *that the children of aboriginal tribes be exempted, wherever necessary, from payment of fees, over and above any general exemptions otherwise provided for.* This Recommendation—

tion will necessarily apply to schools maintained at the cost of public funds, whether provincial, local, or municipal. For aided schools we recommend *that, if necessary, extra allowances be given under the result system for children of aboriginal tribes taught in ordinary schools.* But we anticipate the greatest success, not so much from the ordinary schools, whether departmental or aided, as from the operations of special agencies. Such agencies will in all probability be missionary agencies, and therefore we recommend *that if any bodies be willing to undertake the work of education among aboriginal tribes, they be liberally assisted on the basis of abstention from any interference with religious teaching.* We have elsewhere recommended that in certain cases, where the only school in any locality is one in which religion is taught, instruction in religion should not in every case be insisted on, but with regard to the aborigines, the need is so great for attracting any agency into the field, that we recommend that absolute freedom in all circumstances be left to the managers. Having thus removed every obstruction to the intervention of private enterprise by the offer of liberal aid, and by guaranteeing entire abstinence from interference with religious instruction, we lay great stress upon the employment of aboriginal teachers in preference to those who will be regarded by the tribes as foreigners. Such men can only be obtained in course of time and with liberal assistance from the State. But the experiment has proved successful in Bengal and should be tried elsewhere. We therefore recommend *that when children of aboriginal tribes are found sufficiently instructed to become teachers among their own people, attempts be made to establish them, in schools within the border of their tribes.* As regards the subjects of instruction, we need only remark that they must be as simple as possible and adapted specially to the wants and wishes of the people.

586. Recommendation as to Language.—The

medium of instruction. We recommend *that where the has not been reduced to writing or is otherwise unsuitable, the vernacular of the neighbouring population* *people most often came into contactz and moreover that where education of such tribes is carried on in their own vernacular, the vernacular of the neighbouring District be an additional subject of instruction if this is found advisable.* The question of the language and character is a vexed one and demands special notice. Mr. Oust, Honorary Secretary of the Royal Asiatic Society, and a distinguished authority on the non-Aryan races of India, protests strongly against the statement made by the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces that the Gonds converse perfectly well with the officers of Government in Tinrti or Marathi, and against the condemnation of the Gond language because it has never been reduced to writing, and has not even an alphabet of its own. He argues against the injustice of effacing Gondi from the languages of the world, and considers it even an advantage that the language has not been reduced to writing, on the ground that it will more easily adopt a TrWHfift form of the Roman alphabet. He denies that the language of the Gonds is a “barbarous language” as it is called by the Commissioner of Nagpur. He quotes the remarks of Bishop Caldwell, the highest authority on the subject of Dravidian languages, who writes as follows:—“ While the more “cultivated Dravidian idioms are so simple in structure, the speech of the “Gond boasts of a system of verbal modification and inflection almost as “elaborate as that of Turkish.” Referring to the fact that, even in the United Tingdnm, Welsh is taught in Welsh schools, and Gaelic in Gaelic schools, Mr. Cust rages that the attitude of the Commissioner of Nagpur is unsympathetic, and that the Austrian military ruler of a Slavonic Province could not have expressed himself more decidedly. He proceeds to observe—

“ It is not pretended that the language of the few hundreds of a broken tribe in “the lowest stage of nomadic absence of culture, like the Juang, is to be preferred but where there is a population counting by hundreds of thousands, « given to agriculture, settled in villages, living decent domestic honest lives, it
4 impossible to deny to them schools in their own vulgar tongue if you give “them schools at all.” The following statement and figures bearing on this subject are taken from the report of the census taken in the Central Provinces in 1881. The two aboriginal races of Gonds and Korkus are by far the most numerous of the aboriginal tribes in the Central Provinces. The former have descended into the plains and are becoming mixed up with the Hindu population. The latter stand aloof. The Gond language is Dravidian, the language of the Korkus is Blur or Munda, and belongs to the Kolarian or Northern family as distinguished from the Dravidian or Southern group. Seventy-five per cent, of the Gonds, who number more than two millions, are returned as adhering to the aboriginal religion, and 67 per cent, of the Korkus who number over 85,000 are similarly returned. The census report states that the Gonds in eight Districts have to a large extent adopted some form of the Hindi language or Hindustani or Uriya. In one District out of 57,000 Gonds and Khonds it is said that only 4,313 speak Gondi exclusively, and in Bilaspur and Raipur the proportion of those who speak only their aboriginal language is, very small. It is further stated that the sub-divisions of the same large tribe can hardly understand each other’s dialect. Regarding the Korkus of the Chhmdwara District, the report states that “ all the Korkus speak Hindi, which is a “ necessity for them, living as they do amongst tribes who do not understand “ their language.” The total number of both Gonds and Khonds in the British Districts who are returned as speaking either Gondi or Khondi, is 967,502. The total aboriginal population speaking Munda is returned as 100,641. Regarding the distribution of languages through the Central Provinces, the Inspector General of Education writes that “nearly 10 per cent, speak either “ Gondi or Khondi, 61 per cent. Hindi, 20 per cent. Marathi, 5 per cent. Uriya, “ and 1 per cent. Munda.” Regarding the other Provinces we possess less information. The census reports for Bengal and Assam have not yet been published. In the Bombay report no place is given to any aboriginal language, and apparently the aboriginal races are returned as speaking either Marathi, Gujarathi, or Hindustani.

We have given the statistics and statements furnished by the census officers without comment. The Inspector General of Education in the Central Provinces has, however, placed a paper before us in which he argues that as the Gonds and others have become mixed with their Hindu neighbours, they have adopted their dialect, and that it is better for the Education Department to recognise that fact. He insists on the fact that the Gond of one District speaks a language unintelligible to the Gond of another District. He also quotes the evidence given by Major Doveton, Conservator of Forests, who stated that of the great number of Gonds with whom he had come in contact, he could not recall one whose knowledge of language was confined to Gondi. Major Doveton thought that to the Gond Gondi was wholly unprofitable. The Inspector General of Education sums up his argument as follows:—“ When we are asked *if* to introduce Gondi into our schools, we are asked to reduce that language “to writing, to master various dialects that are day by day undergoing “change, and losing their distinctive character, and actually to create a “ literature.”

~NTr- Oust is not, however, the only advocate for the recognition of the fifruYpifpirtfl.l langrmgfts. The Reverend A. Campbell of Santhalisthan, in a paper pfortaft before the Commission, contends for the claims of the vernaculars of the

Santhal tribes as the medium of instruction in primary schools. We have given careful consideration to the subject and endeavoured to meet the difficulties we have noticed. It is a matter for regret that up to the present time the Local Governments generally, but especially in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts and in the Central Provinces, have been unable to provide adequate instruction for the aboriginal population. We hope that greater and more successful efforts will now be made both by the direct instrumentality of the Department, and, wherever possible, by the preferable means of aided effort, to reach these races. We attach the greatest importance to the training of aboriginal boys as teachers. We cannot approve of the suggestion that has been made for using the Roman character in giving education in the aboriginal dialects. For unless the larger Indian communities can be induced to adopt that character, it would not be expedient to perpetuate the isolation of the aborigines by teaching them an alphabet as foreign to their neighbours as to them. But we are not prepared to view the question of ... language in the light in which it has appeared to the Department in the Central Provinces. In order to reach the minds of the aboriginal races it will be necessary, we think, to teach them in their mother tongue. In the upper classes of the school, the vernacular of the District may with advantage be taught. Por although a foreign language should not be forced upon any tribe, and certainly not as a means of primary education, still it is desirable in the best interests of most aboriginal races that , they should be enabled to associate and deal on equal terms with the neighbouring population. Where any vernacular retains independent vitality and can be reduced to writing, we think that efforts should be made to recognise it. Where the aborigines have already adopted a Hindu language, we would give instruction in that tongue and not endeavour to go back from a change which is beneficial to them. But in many cases a change is going on, and in such cases we would commence with the aboriginal dialect spoken and gradually advance to the study of that vernacular which is in course of adoption. A wide discretion may be left to local authorities, but we are convinced that greater efforts are required, and that the task of educating the aboriginal races, difficult as it is, should no longer be neglected. Much may be done by the Department, and more by private effort liberally aided and encouraged- We think that Government should freely aid and cordially recognise any efforts made by Missionaries or others to reduce the speech of the aboriginal races to writing, and to compile grammars and vocabularies of the numerous non-Aryan languages throughout India.

SECTION 4.—*The Low Castes.*

587. Education of Low Castes—The question of the duty of the State towards the education of the low caste Hindu community was raised and dis* cussed in the Commission on December 18th, 1882,* and on March 8th, 1883. This question is in some respects a wider one than that of the education of the aboriginal population ; for it is in evidence that a few low-caste boys of ability have already advanced beyond *the* elementary stage and are demanding an entrance into secondary schools. Moreover, the low-caste community, in some Provinces at least, are becoming alive to the advantage of education. In some towns they are taking full advantage of special schools established for them and of night schools, and **are** generally showing anxiety to obtain a practical recog* nition of their rights. Most of them are very poor, but a few are ready to pay fees; and as they contribute to the local cesses which support the State primary

* A letter from the Bishop of Bombay on this subject, dated October 2882, was laid before the Commission.

schools, they have a claim to some return for their contributions. The question of their rights is therefore a practical and pressing question. But we must acknowledge that any settlement of it is beset with difficulties.

588. *The Difficulties.*—The difficulties in the way of admitting the claims of low caste children are both social and religious. It has been, asserted that in theory the rights of low castes are admitted even by native society, and that in the indigenous village schools of Bengal the low caste, who sits on a separate mat, does not defile his neighbour and may freely attend school. On the other hand, the evidence shows that as a fact such classes very rarely attend indigenous schools; that even under the departmental systems constant pressure has to be exercised by the superior officers to secure the claims of low-caste Hindus to receive instruction in the Government or cess-schools; and that the higher castes generally are strongly averse to their children mixing with low caste boys. The objection must therefore be admitted to prevail almost universally, and we proceed to examine the causes. Among these perhaps the most potent cause is the fear of caste pollution. One of our questions to witnesses inquired into the attitude of the influential classes towards the extension of elementary education to all classes of the community, and several witnesses have replied that positive hostility is shown to the admission of low-caste boys to school. A Madras witness mentions the case of a school for Cherumars, the ancient slave caste, being established at Calicut, but the Nayars and Tiyars “used to waylay the boys as they went to school and snatch their books out of their hands.” A Bombay witness relates how some promising low-caste boys were recently sent from the regimental school at Dharwar to the Government high school, when a large number of Brahman boys seceded at once from the high school. Mr. Kunte, the headmaster of a Government high school and for some time acting Principal of a college in the Bombay Presidency, made the following statement in his evidence before the Commission: “The question of the admission of children of Mahars and Dhers into Government schools is not raised by the Mahars and Dhers themselves. It is not real and has no practical bearing. It is a groundless agitation caused by sentimental English officials and unpractical native reformers.” We quote Mr. Kunte’s answer in full, in order to observe that his view of the question seems to us opposed alike to the policy laid down by the Secretary of State and to the conclusions arrived at by the Commission. The facts which we have given regarding the popularity of night schools in Bombay, and the attendance of 3,512 low caste boys in the primary schools of that Presidency, afford ground for believing that efforts for the education of these classes may be attended with fair success. The evidence, however, given in all the other Provinces of India is conclusive as to the difficulties which surround this question. There are several instances of enlightened individuals and even of whole communities being favourable to the claims of low caste pupils; but, speaking generally, objections are widely entertained in every part of India to their admission into the same school with Hindus of the higher castes. These objections are not universally, perhaps not even generally, due to religious sentiment alone, but in a large measure to the uncleanly habits and the unpolished manners and conversation of low-caste boys. They are also occasionally due to the desire of the upper classes to keep the low castes in a state of subjection and servility. In a paper laid before the Commission some of these objections, as well as the risk of contagious diseases, are strongly insisted upon, and the writer remarks with reason that “to parents to whom the well-being of the children is of equal importance with their education, the practical working of the principle of equality is a perpetual source of discomfort as regards both the physical and the moral welfare of their children.”

These may be, and in some cases are, real and reasonable difficulties. On the other hand, in the case which, occurred at D liar war, no one ever pretended that the regimental school-boys were either unclean or immoral, and the objection taken to their admission to the high school could not have proceeded from that cause. It is also worthy of note that the aboriginal races, whose habits are equally unclean, are never objected to on that ground. In submitting a report on education in Kaira and Cambay for the year 1880-81, the Collector commented at length on the determined opposition shown by the people to the admission of Christians and low castes into the cess-schools. He stated that they had been banished from six schools in the District, and he noticed with dissatisfaction the language used by the Deputy Inspector on the subject. On the whole, therefore, it may be said that there exists a deep-seated prejudice to the admission of low-caste boys into public schools and, though its force varies in different parts of India, its existence is partly due to religious feeling and partly to fear of physical and moral contagion.

589. Authoritative Decision on the Subject—It illustrates the intensity of the popular prejudice that some of those who have been ready to argue that the admission of low-caste boys into the indigenous schools is not objectionable in principle, have denied that the policy of admitting all classes of Indian society to schools maintained or aided by the State has ever received the sanction of high authority. There can, however, be no doubt on this point. In a Despatch No. 58, dated April 28th, 1858, the Court of Directors referred to a difficulty which had arisen in Dharwar in the Bombay Presidency regarding the refusal of the Local Government to interfere in the case of a low caste boy who was denied admission into the Government school. They then passed the following order upon the Government of India's letter, dated May 20th, 1857:—"The educational institutions of Government are intended by us to be open to all classes, and we cannot depart from a principle which is essentially sound, and the maintenance of which is of the first importance. It is not impossible that, in some cases, the enforcement of the principle may be followed by a withdrawal of a portion of the scholars; but it is sufficient to remark that those persons who object to its practical enforcement will be at liberty to withhold their contributions and apply their funds to the formation of schools on a different basis." The principle thus laid down has been repeatedly re-affirmed by the Local Governments of Madras and Bombay, and in the latter Presidency cases of opposition to the orders of Government have been reported from time to time.

590/Measures taken to meet the Difficulty—Under the orders cited, the general rule of the Education Department throughout India is in favour of the admission of low-caste boys to Government schools as a matter of right. Bombay is, however, not the only Province in which the enforcement of the right has led to difficulties. Some Dher boys were admitted to the Chanda High School in the Central Provinces, and immediately the other boys, as well as the teachers who were natives of the town, left the school. In a statement put before us by the Delhi Literary Society,* it is said that there are several cases on record of attempts to admit Chamar boys to schools which have resulted in empty benches. In order to meet these difficulties two attempts have been made, the institution of separate Government schools for low-caste boys, and the extension of special encouragement to missionary bodies to undertake their education.

In Bombay there are 16 special schools attended by 564 low-caste pupils* In the Central Provinces there are 4 such schools with 111 pupils* In the Punjab at Delhi, and in its neighbourhood there are a few mission schools of an

elementary character for low-caste pupils, which, however, are more expensive than Government schools of the same character, owing to the difficulty of inducing any large number of low-caste children to attend them. In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, as well as in Bombay, fees are remitted in the case of low-caste children. But none of these measures touch the whole difficulty. Without denying the necessity for the establishment by Government of special primary schools, we may remark that such a measure seems to admit the principle of exclusion, and is moreover only practicable where the low caste community is large. It intensifies the difficulty when a clever lad from the depressed castes wants to enter a secondary school or perhaps a Normal school, and it leaves the great mass of the low castes unprovided for even in the matter of primary education. These low-castes are a most essential part of the constitution of every village, community. Their services in Western and Southern India are recognised by the bestowal of free or partially free grants of land, on which they pay the local cess out of which the school fund is formed. As they are scattered throughout every village in these Presidencies, it is not possible to provide everywhere separate schools for them. The proportion which the low caste community bears to the whole population of India cannot be exactly estimated, but that it is not inconsiderable may be inferred from the figures which are presented in the census report of Bombay, the Presidency in which the low caste question is at present attracting most notice. The "depressed castes" of Hindus in the British districts of Bombay number nearly 1,100,000, and are chiefly employed in village service of the lowest description. Numerically they are the third largest class of the classes into which the census returns divide the Hindu community, the classes of "cultivators" and of "artizans" alone outnumbering them. Of the total population classed in the census returns as Hindus, they number 9.31 per cent. There is no reason to suppose that the proportion is larger in Bombay than in other parts of India, and if such be the case, the question of the education of low-caste Hindus cannot be considered a matter of no practical importance. On the contrary, it is from this class of the community that the ranks of dacoits and other criminal organisations are largely recruited. It has further been pointed out by witnesses in Bombay that the tendency of social progress is to deprive the village Mahars and Bamoshis of their customary dues which used to be paid in kind. The natural movement of society from status to contract involves in India a severe social struggle, and it is necessary that these classes which are least able to help themselves should receive from the State proper attention to their claims for education.

591. Recommendations regarding Low-caste Children*—It is impossible to overlook the objections which are felt to the association of low-caste children with those of other classes. The principle, however, of their right to receive education in the State schools has been asserted; and at the present time, when the control over primary schools* is likely to devolve less upon the Department and more upon numerous Local JFund and Municipal Boards scattered throughout the country, it is desirable to re-affirm that principle. We therefore recommend *that the principle laid down in the Court of Directors' letter of May 5th, 1854, and again in their reply to the letter of the Government of India, dated May 20th, 1857, "that no boy be refused admission to a Government college or school merely on the ground of caste" and repeated by the Secretary of State in 1861, be now re-affirmed as a principle, and be applied with due caution to every institution, not reserved for special races, which is wholly maintained at the cost of public funds, whether provincial, municipal, or local.* We are fully alive to the fact that no principle, however sound, can be forced upon an unwilling society in defiance of their

social and religious sentiments. In dealing with, primary education we have recognised a distinction between “ special ” and “ other ” aided schools, and we have recommended that^c a proper proportion be maintained in every school-district so as to secure a proportionate provision for the education of all classes “ of society/” This Recommendation will not prevent two or more adjoining school-districts from uniting in order to establish a common school for the education of their low-caste population. But all schools that are wholly maintained at the cost of public funds must be regarded as open to all tax-payers and to all classes of the community, and if any of those classes object to association with the children who are assembled in the board, or municipal, or Government schools, they should be encouraged to set up a⁶⁵ special school,” and apply for a grant-in-aid. In that way it is open to all classes of the community to secure their proper share of the school fund to which they may be compelled by the Legislature to contribute. The grant-in-aid rules afford them a sufficient remedy . But even in the case of Government or board schools, the principle affirmed by us must be applied with caution. It is not desirable for masters or Inspectors to endeavour to force on a social change which, with judicious treatment, will gradually be accepted by society. If the low-caste community seek an entrance into the cess-school, their right must be firmly maintained, especially in the secondary institutions where there is no alternative of a special school for them to attend. It is however undesirable to urge them to claim a right about which they are themselves indifferent. Still less should the schoolmaster relax in their case those rules regarding decency of dress and conversation which should be enforced in every case. In order, however, to facilitate the public recognition of the claims of the lowest classes by evidence on their part that they desire education, and that they can conduct themselves with propriety at school, we consider that every encouragement should be given to special schools for the education of such classes. We therefore recommend *that the establishment of special schools or classes for children of low castes be liberally encouraged in places where there are a sufficient number of such children to form separate schools or classes, and where the schools already maintained from public funds do not sufficiently provide for their education.* In our discussions on this subject it was brought to our notice that in some parts of the Central Provinces and of Bombay special objections were entertained by the rural communities to the instruction of low castes on the ground that education would advance them in life and induce them to seek emancipation from their present servile condition. It is therefore clear that in some parts of India at least this class of society requires special help, and we consider that such help can often be best afforded without giving offence to other castes by the establishment of special schools.

SECTION 5.—*Poorer Classes of Society,*

592. Education of the poor—The claims of all the poorest sections of society, including certain classes of the Native Christian community, for some special assistance in the matter of education, were pressed upon our attention. Poverty is not in India confined to the lowest classes of society, nor is it found struggling against difficulties only in schools of primary instruction. It is not confined to any particular creed. The poverty of Muhammadans has attracted notice, but the condition of the native Roman Catholics of Southern and Western India has been described by some witnesses as no better. Amongst Hindus even of the highest caste, who have experienced the advantages of education as opening to them lucrative employment, very heavy sacrifices are often made by parents to give **their** children a, good education. In considering generally **the question of poverty* we drew a distinction between the claims of the poor**

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for primary and for higher education. It seemed to us to be the duty of the State to extend primary education as widely as possible, and to facilitate the instruction of the poor by liberally remitting fees for attendance at primary schools. We have recommended in Chapter IV that “in all board schools a certain proportion of pupils be admissible as free students on the ground of poverty; and in the case of special schools established for the benefit of the poorer classes, a general or larger exemption from payment of fees be allowed under proper authority for special reasons.” We have further recommended that assistance be given to schools and orphanages in which poor children are taught reading, writings and counting with or without manual work.” Orphanage schools are to be found in all Provinces, and deserve assistance from the State. But while Government may legitimately relax its rules as to fees in primary schools to a very large extent on the ground of poverty, we recognise a distinction when secondary and collegiate education are reached. Here it is only with boys of promise that the State need concern itself. There is no advantage in prolonging the attendance at school of poor children whose abilities are not conspicuous, and whose time would be better spent in learning a trade or in labour. For higher education a provision of scholarships to connect each class of institution with that above it is sufficient, and we have already recommended that “the system of scholarships be so arranged that they may form connecting links between the different grades of institutions.” With a liberal allowance of free studentships tenable in primary schools, and a well-organised system of scholarships in schools of a higher order and in colleges, we think that the legitimate wants of the poorer classes will be met as far as it is possible for Government to meet them, and that no further recommendations on our part are required. If, however, any special measures seem required in particular localities, they may be provided by the local Governments. Thus in 1868 Lord Napier’s Government in Madras sanctioned a special grant-in-aid of St. Joseph’s College, Negapatam, which was intended to provide for the wants of a very indigent class of the community. It is in evidence that about 200 native boarders are maintained at the boarding school of St. Joseph’s College, which has lately been transferred from Negapatam to Trichinopoly. Boys who belong to the poorer classes and give special promise are taken into the school. No school fees are charged, and even the boarding charges are remitted in cases of extreme poverty. But the advantage of making the institution self-supporting is fully recognised, and when boys have left the school and succeeded in life, they are expected to repay as far as possible the cost of their education. We have mentioned this institution because it suggests the terms on which the higher education of specially poor pupils can best be conducted. But we have not considered it necessary to frame any Recommendation on the subject, because the grant-in-aid rules should provide all the assistance which can be justly claimed from the State.

593. Recommendations recapitulated.—Our Recommendations concerning the education of classes requiring special treatment stand as follows:—

(a). *The Sons of Native Chiefs and Noblemen.*

1. That Local Governments be invited to consider the question of establishing special colleges or schools for the sons and relations of Native Chiefs and Noblemen, where such institutions do not now exist.

2. That Local Governments be invited to consider the advisability of entrusting the education of Wards of Court to the joint supervision of the District authorities and the Educational Inspectors.

(b). *Muhammadans*,

1. That the special encouragement of Muhammadan education be regarded as a legitimate charge on Local, on Municipal, and on Provincial Funds.
2. That indigenous Muhammadan schools be liberally encouraged to add purely secular subjects to their curriculum of instruction.
3. That special standards for Muhammadan primary schools be prescribed.
4. That Hindustani be the principal medium for imparting instruction to Muhammadans in primary and middle schools, except in localities where the Muhammadan community desire that some other language be adopted.
5. That the official vernacular, in places where it is not Hindustani, be added, as a voluntary subject, to the curriculum of primary and middle schools for Muhammadans maintained from public funds; and that arithmetic and accounts be taught through the medium of that vernacular.
6. That, in localities where Muhammadans form a fair proportion of the population, provision be made in middle and high schools maintained from public funds for imparting instruction in the Hindustani and Persian languages.
7. That higher English education for Muhammadans, being the kind of education in which that community needs special help, be liberally encouraged.
8. That where necessary, a graduated system of special scholarships for Muhammadans be established,—to be awarded,—
 - a.—In primary schools, and tenable in middle schools,
 - ft.—In middle schools, and tenable in high schools.
 - c.—On the results of the Matriculation and First Arts examinations, and tenable in colleges*
9. That in all classes of schools maintained from public funds, a certain proportion of free studentships be expressly reserved for Muhammadan students.
10. That, in places where educational endowments for the benefit of Muhammadans exist, and are under the management of Government, the funds arising from such endowments be devoted to the advancement of education among Muhammadans exclusively.
11. That, where Muhammadan endowments exist, and are under the management of private individuals or bodies, inducements by liberal grants-in-aid be offered to them, to establish English-teaching schools or colleges on the grant-in-aid system.
12. That, where necessary, Normal schools or classes for the training of Muhammadan teachers be established.
13. That, wherever instruction is given in Muhammadan schools through the medium of Hindustani, endeavours be made to secure, as far as possible, Muhammadan teachers to give such instruction.
14. That Muhammadan Inspecting Officers be employed more largely than hitherto for the inspection of primary schools for Muhammadans.
15. That Associations for the promotion of Muhammadan education be recognised and encouraged.
16. That in the Reports on public instruction a special section be devoted to Muhammadan education.
17. That the attention of the Local Governments be invited to the question of the proportion in which patronage is distributed among educated Muhammadans and others.

18. That the principles embodied in the Recommendations given above be equally applicable to any other races with similar antecedents, whose education is on the same level as that of the Muhammadans.

(c). *Aboriginal Tribes.*

1. That children of aboriginal tribes be exempted wherever necessary from payment of fees, over and above any general exemptions otherwise provided for.

2. That, if necessary, extra allowances be given under the result system for boys of aboriginal tribes taught in ordinary schools.

3. That when children of aboriginal tribes are found sufficiently instructed to become schoolmasters among their own people, attempts be made to establish them in schools within the borders of the tribes.

4. That if any bodies be willing to undertake the work of education among aboriginal tribes, they be liberally assisted on the basis of abstention from any interference with any religious teaching.

5. That where the language of the tribe has not been reduced to writing, or is otherwise unsuitable, the medium of instruction be the vernacular of the neighbouring population with whom the aboriginal people most often come in contact.

6. That, where the education of such tribes is carried on in their own vernacular, the vernacular of the neighbouring District be an additional subject of instruction where this is found advisable.

(d). *Low Castes.*

1. That the principle laid down in the Court of Directors' letter of May 5 th, 1854, and again in their reply to the letter of the Government of India, dated May 20th, 1857, that "no boy be refused admission to a Government college or school merely on the ground of caste," and repeated by the Secretary of State in 1863, be now re-affirmed as a principle, and be applied with due caution to every institution not reserved for special races, which is wholly maintained at the cost of public funds, whether provincial, municipal, or local.

2. That the establishment of special schools or classes for children of low caste be liberally encouraged in places where there is a sufficient number of such children to form separate schools or classes, and where the schools maintained from public funds do not sufficiently provide for their education.

CHAPTER X.

FEMALE EDUCATION.

594. Introductory * Female education in India has to encounter peculiar difficulties. These difficulties are partly due to the circumstance that the East India Company did not turn its attention to the subject until many years after it had begun to direct its efforts towards the education of boys. But the most serious impediments arise not so much from the action or inaction of the Ruling Power, as from the customs of the people themselves. In the first place, the effective desire for education as a means of earning a livelihoods does not exist as regards the female part of the population. There is evidence before the Commission that a demand for girls' education in schools is slowly but surely springing up among the natives. There is also evidence to show that this desire is of comparatively recent origin, and that it would be easy to exaggerate its extent and force. In the second place, the social customs of India in regard to child-marriage, and the seclusion in which women of the well-to-do classes spend their married life in most parts of the country, create difficulties which embarrass the promoters of female education at every step. The duration of the school-going age for girls is much shorter than that for boys. It usually terminates at nTM, and seldom extends beyond the eleventh year. At so early an age a girl's education is scarcely begun ; and in very few cases has the married »T»iW the opportunity of going on with her education after she leaves school. In the third place, the supply of teachers for girls' schools is more scanty in quantity, and less satisfactory in quality, than the supply of teachers for boys' schools. Finally, the State system of instruction is conducted in a large measure by a male staff; and although female teachers are being gradually trained, in very inadequate numbers, the direction and inspection remain in the hands of male officers, while the text-books are, as a rule, framed with a view to the education of boys rather than of girls. The Commission has collected evidence, both oral and documentary, on each of these four chief causes of the backwardness of female education in India. They have endeavoured, after anxious consideration, to meet the difficulties by the specific Recommendations enumerated at the end of this Chapter. But in entering on the subject of girls' education, we desire it to be understood that practical difficulties exist which cannot be solved by any recommendations of a Commission, or even by the zealous action of Government, but only by the growth of public opinion among the natives themselves. The Despatches of 1854 and of 1859 declared their cordial approval of all reasonable steps for the promotion of female education under the system of grant-in-aid. But the latter Despatch folly recognised the impediments which lay in the way of any great or rapid extension, and the risk which would attend official attempts to force on a sudden change in native custom in regard to the education of girls.

595. Female Education in Ancient India—While endorsing the sentiments of the Despatches, in regard both to the promotion of female education and to the which stand in the way of any sudden expansion, we do not underrate what had been effected in earlier periods by the natives of India themselves. Apart from the Sanskrit traditions of women of learning and literary merit in pre-historic and mediæval times, there can be no doubt that when, the

British obtained possession of the country, a section of the female population was educated up to the modest requirements of household life. In certain Provinces little girls occasionally attended the indigenous village schools, and learned the same lessons as their brothers. Many women of the upper class had their minds stored with the legends of the Puranas and epic poems, which supply impressive lessons in morality, and in India form the substitute for history. Among the lower orders, the keeping of the daily accounts fell, in some households, to the mother or chief female of the family. The arithmetic of the homestead was often conducted by primitive methods, addition and subtraction being performed by means of fingers or any rude counters which came to hand. Among the more actively religious sects and races, girls received an education as a necessary part of their spiritual training. In the Punjab they may still be seen seated in groups around some venerable Sikh priest, learning to read and recite the national scriptures or Granth; and the Brahman tutor of wealthy Hindu families does not confine his instruction to the sons alone. In some parts of the country, such education as girls obtained was confined ostensibly to reading and arithmetic, writing being an art not held suitable for women of respectable life. The intellectual attainments, wit, and powers of memory of the Indian courtesan class have often been remarked, and formed one of their proverbial attractions. As a matter of fact, there always have been women of great accomplishments and strong talents for business in India. At this moment, one of the best administered Native States has been ruled during two generations by ladies—the successive Begums of Bhopal; many of the most ably managed of the great landed properties or zamindaris of Bengal are entirely in the hands of females; while, in commercial life, women conduct, through their agents, lucrative and complicated concerns. But the idea of giving girls a school education, as a necessary part of their training for life, did not originate in India until quite within our own days. The intellectual activity of Indian women is very keen, and it seems frequently to last longer in life than the mental energies of the men. The intelligence of Indian women is certainly far in advance of their opportunities of obtaining school-instruction, and promises well for their education in the future.

596. Female Education: Division of the Subject—In dealing with female education we propose (i) very briefly to "summarise its progress up to the date of the appointment of this Commission in 1882; (2) to exhibit by a tabular statement the position and extent of female education in that year; (3) to explain the different kinds of agencies at work, and their financial aspects; (4) to examine the suitability of the existing system of female instruction, together with the suggestions which have been made to us for its improvement; (5) to set forth in specific Recommendations the proposals to which our enquiries have led us.

597. Female Education in Madras.—In most Provinces of India, female instruction formed a part of the programme of missionary effort, and its early development has necessarily found a place in the historical section of this Report. In the Madras Presidency, the first attempt at female education in the modern sense, consisted of the boarding schools maintained by the Church of England Societies in Tinnevely; but intended almost exclusively for daughters of Christian converts. In 1841, the Missionaries of the Scottish Church commenced the work of educating the Hindu girls of Madras. In 1845, the first girls' school under partial native management was opened. As narrated in Chapter II of this Report, the Despatch of 1854 found about 8,000 girls in elementary schools in the Madras Presidency and neighbouring States; 256 in boarding schools. The total number of girls' schools was 256.

The Despatch of 1854 led to an increase of effort. In 1858-59, grants-in-aid to the extent of Rs. **1,589** were given to 39 schools attended by 1,885 girls. In 1870-71, aid to the amount of Rs. 25,682 was given to 138 schools, with 7,245 girls. There were, besides, 2,148 girls in 289 mixed schools, and 792 in village boys schools. In 1870-71 over 10,000 girls were being instructed within the Madras Presidency, of whom 2,810 (chiefly Eurasians or Europeans) studied English, 5,788 Tamil, 1,397 Telugu, 703 Malayalam, 221 Kanarese, 25 Tuluva, and 7 French. In 1858, an annual examination for school-mistresses' certificates was instituted, which gradually developed into a general examination for girls' schools, and exerted a wholesome influence in improving the quality of the teaching. In 1870-71, there were 141 candidates, of whom 41 passed. These improved arrangements together with the increased efforts of the missionary bodies and the native educational agencies which had entered the field, aided by grants and supplemented by Government efforts, produced a great increase during the next ten years. The following Table shows the position of female education in Madras on the 31st March 1882. There were then, according to the departmental return, 557 girls' schools, with 35,042 pupils; aided and unaided institutions forming by far the most important element in the total. Madras has now an organised system of female instruction, from Normal or training schools for female teachers, down to primary schools for girls. The Government Training school for female teachers has not proved very successful hitherto, but arrangements have lately been made which are likely to increase its usefulness, and the aided and missionary training schools are doing excellent work. Besides the Christian Zanana Missions, there is a Zanana Agency on a secular basis, conducted by a Committee of native gentlemen and English ladies. Zanana education, however, is not so extensively developed, or apparently so much required as in some other Provinces; the seclusion of women of the better classes is less complete, and it is easier for girls to obtain a considerable amount of education at school. Madras ranked highest in the Census returns of 1881 among the Provinces of India with regard to female education (excepting the little territory of Coorg). Those returns show a total of 39,104 females under instruction in the Madras Presidency, or 4,062 in excess of the pupils returned by the Education Department in 1882; and 94,571 not under instruction, but able to read and write. The proportion under instruction is 1 girl in 403 of the female population, and the proportion of those able to read and write but not under instruction, 1 woman in 166 of the female population.

Female Education in Madras in 1882

	Normal Schools.			Secondary Schools.			Mixed Schools.	Total	Total Expenditure.
	Normal Schools.	Secondary Schools.	Primary Schools.	Normal Schools.	Secondary Schools.	Primary Schools.			
	1	4	47	3	42	460	14,13*	35*042	Rs. 226,169
Number of Institutions.	1	4	47	3	42	460	14,13*	35*042	Rs. 226,169
„ Pupils	201	26	2*123	137	363	18,242	14,13*	35*042	...

598. Female Education in Bombay.—The early growth of female education in Bombay has been so fully described in Chapter II, that we need not again dwell upon the subject. It will suffice to note that the honour of introducing the movement there belongs to the American Mission. From the year 1800 to 1851, female education in Bombay practically remained in the hands of the Missionaries of various bodies. In the latter year, the natives began to enter in force. The Students' literary and Scientific Society

then organised a number of girls' schools, which amid various vicissitudes have done and continue to do a most important work in female education. The Parsis and the Banias of Gujarat have displayed an especial interest in the movement. The Despatch of 1854 found 65 girls' schools (of which we possess full returns) in Bombay, with about 3,500 pupils. There were also 593 girls attending boys' schools. We have no figures to show the attendance of girls in indigenous schools at that date, but it is believed to have been very small. In 1857, small annual rewards were offered by Government to vernacular schoolmasters who should form girls' classes in their schools, with the result that in 1864-65 there were 639 girls in such schools. The visit of Miss Carpenter, the interest shown by European ladies at Thana, Dhulia, and elsewhere, and the liberality of certain Southern Maratha Chiefs and leading Parsis, gave afresh impulse to the movement. Female Normal schools were established at Ahmedabad, Bombay, and Poona. In Sind, 22 schools were opened for girls in 1868. Of the 659 pupils attending them, 75 per cent, were Muhammadans. Half of the schools were conducted by female teachers of respectable parentage, who could read, write, and sew. In 1869, there were altogether 209 girls' schools in the Bombay Presidency, attended by 9,291 pupils. The statistics for 1871 show 218 girls' schools, with 9,190 pupils. Since 1871, the Bombay Government has recognised its duty towards female education. Grants-in-aid have been more freely given, and a large number of girls' schools have been founded, with the result of multiplying nearly three-fold the number of pupils returned in 1871. It is worthy of remark, however, that the number of pupils (11,238) in departmental girls' schools now exceeds the number (10,621) in aided and unaided institutions, excluding mixed schools for boys and girls. Apart from this, the special features of female education in Bombay seem to be (1) the evidence of a growing desire among the commercial classes for its extension; (2) the efforts on a large scale made by the natives themselves (Parsis, JMarathas, and Gujarathis) to meet this demand; and (3) the successful endeavours by the Government to create an efficient staff of female teachers. The Training College for female teachers at Ahmedabad is doing much to solve this difficult problem both in the ordinary manner and by methods of its own. It will be again mentioned in the paragraph dealing with the supply of female teachers. The statistics of female instruction on the 31st March 1882 derived from the Bombay Education Department are given below. The census officers in 1881 only returned 18,460 girls under instruction in the British Districts, with 2,733 *n the Bombay Feudatory States, showing an average of one girl under instruction in 431 of the female population in British Districts. The Bombay Census returns are, however, below the truth in this respect; and it has been explained to us that many girls who are "under instruction" have been returned to the Census officers as "able to read and write." The returns show 32,648 women not under instruction, but able to read and write, being one woman in every 244 of the female population.

Female Education in Bombay in 1882.

	CrovBBjncBirt lira TTT tnrio ITS.			Oihxb lireTtrimoirs, aided AH3) UK AID BD (UKDBB I IN-SPECT 10 X).			Mixed Schools.	TOTAL.	Total Expenditure.
	Normal Schools.	Secondary Schools.	Primary Schools.	Normal Schools.	Secondary Schools.	Primary Schools.			
Hraniber of Institutions	2	%*%,	* 18 X		9	151	Unknown.	343	Rs. 178,707
• » ' _ Kapils --	73		11*238		538	10*621	4,296	26,766	...

599. Female Education in Bengal.—We have dwelt at some length on the history of education in Southern India, partly because the *movement* took its rise at an earlier date in Madras and Bombay than in the Northern Presidency, but chiefly because such education has there affected the mass of the female population to an extent unknown in Northern India. Considerable progress has of recent years been made in Lower Bengal. But when we leave Madras and Bombay, the proportion of females under instruction to the total female population, at once decreases from 1 in 400 odd, to 1 in 976 in Bengal, and 1 in 2,169 in the North-Western Provinces. We may state once for all that in the North as in the South of India, missionary societies have been the pioneers of female education, and still hold a foremost place in the work. With this general preface applicable to all the Northern Provinces, we shall briefly mention any special features peculiar to individual Provinces, and show the numerical progress which has been made in all. A characteristic feature of female education in Bengal is the high position held by the Bethune Girls' school in Calcutta. This institution was established in 1849, and bears the name of its founder Mr. Drinkwater Bethune, then Legal Member of Council, who took an active part in many movements for the advancement of native society. It was opened under the name of the Hindu Female school, with 23 pupils, and was for some time maintained at the entire cost, and under the direct management of Mr. Bethune, who also by his will left lands and other property in Calcutta for its endowment in perpetuity. On his death in 1851, it was taken up by Lord Dalhousie, who for nearly five years paid Es. 8,000 a year for its maintenance from his private purse. The charge was afterwards transferred to the State, although the direct management of the school continued, and still continues, in the hands of a Committee. Unlike the earlier missionary efforts, the Bethune school rests on a secular basis; and the Committee aims at conducting it in accordance with national Indian feeling; It derives its pupils chiefly from the higher classes, exacts an adequate payment for boarding and other charges, and carries its instruction up to University standards* The Despatch of 1854 found 288 girls' schools (of which we have returns) in Bengal, with 6,869 pupils. Grants to the amount of Rs. 5,000 were assigned for girls'schools, and about 40 were started by the Inspector in Burdwan, Hugli, and the 24-Parganas. But the mutiny intervened, the education of girls in public schools was strongly criticised, and the grant was withdrawn. Under the grant-in-aid system the number of girls'schools in 1862-63 stood at 35, with 1,183 pupils. A female Normal school was established at Bampur Bauleah under the grant-in-aid system ; seven zanana agencies were at work under missionary bodies; classes for girls in the improved pathshalas were formed by offering the gurus monthly rewards of Be. 1 for every four girls under instruction. Miss Carpenter's visit gave a stimulus to female education in Bengal, as well as in Bombay. In 1869, there were 2,351 girls in aided **schools** in Bengal; in 1870-71, the number of aided girls' schools had risen to 274, containing **5,900** pupils. Since then there has been a great development of **female** education in Bengal, upon the system of grant-in-aid. The **total** number of girls at school in 1882, as shown by the departmental returns given below, was **41,349*** The Government maintained two schools of a high class—the Bethune school at Calcutta, and the [Eden school at Dacca. The college department of the Bethune school was opened in 1879, in consequence of the success of one of its pupils at the Entrance Examination of the University. From that time there have been candidates at the Entrance and First Arts Examinations every year; and on the 31st March 1882, the college department contained six pupils reading for degrees

□ ?- ^ University* Two of them have since obtained the degree of Bachelor of Arts.; The Eree Church female Normal school in Calcutta, also , ' v , contains three jnatricul&ted students who are reading for the First Arte examina-

tion. The Census officers in 1881 returned the number of girls under instruction in Bengal at 35,760 (or 5,589 less than the Education Department's total), being 1 girl under instruction in 976 of the female population. According to the census of 1881, the number able to read and write, but not under instruction, was 61,449 * 568 of the total female population.

Female Education in Bengal in 1882.

	GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS,			OTHER INSTITUTIONS, AIDED AND UNAIDED (-OUTDEB IM-BEOTON) .			Mixed Schools.	Total.	Total Expenditure.
	Collegiate Schools.	Secondary Schools.	Primary Schools.	Normal Schools.	Secondary Schools.	Primary Schools.			
Number of Institutions.	1	2		2	20	990	Unknown	1,015	Rs. 223,768
„ Pupils	6	m	...	41(0)	752	17,482	22,799	41,349	...

(a) Including 3 matriculated students reading for the F. A. Examination in the Free Church of Scotland Normal School.

600. Female Education in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh.—

Nowhere has it been sought to promote female education with greater ardour by direct Government agency, as distinguished from private efforts, than in the North-Western Provinces. The early efforts of the Missionaries were succeeded by earnest endeavours on the part of the Education Department. The Despatch of 1854 found (so far as the returns now available show) 17 Missionary girls' schools, with 386 pupils in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. Mr. Reid and Mr. Kempson, the successive Directors of Public Instruction from 1854 to 1878, were strong advocates of female education, while Sir William Muir, who became Lieutenant-Governor in 1868, cordially supported the efforts of the Education Department. The girls' schools existing before 1857 for the most part disappeared in the mutiny. In 1859, a fresh start was made. Mr. Reid was persuaded that if "Government were to appoint 150 Pundits to the charge of as many "schools in every individual District in these Provinces on liberal salaries, we "should have 70,000 or 80,000 girls in these schools before the year was out." As long as Government was willing to spend money freely and to accept mere numbers as a test of success, no difficulties arose. "But," writes our Provincial Committee for the North-Western Provinces, "against anything like "efficiency and reality there were two prominent obstacles." In the absence of educated women teachers, the Department was obliged to employ elderly men whose best working days were past. "It was, however, hoped that in process of "time we might train up women, if they could be found; and it was determined "to establish Normal schools with this object. Competent mistresses were the "first difficulty, and when they were supposed to have been procured, there came "the further difficulty of pupils to train. Married women of a suitable age as "a rule would not be spared by their husbands, and rarely had time for any "continuous study." Respectable widows were not found to be available in any numbers, although an attempt was made in this direction. In 1870-71, the number of girls' schools in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh was 640, with 13,853 pupils. Between 1871 and 1881, a great decrease took place in girls' schools. Their abolition was mainly due to the financial position of the Government in 1876. It was felt that if retrenchments were necessary, they could be carried out in the girls' schools with the least prejudice to education,

further reduction took place in the following year, and whereas in 1875-76, were in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, 400 Government schools for girls, with 9,000 pupils; in 1880-81 only 160 schools "With 3,757 pupils." The total number of girls' schools in 1882^ below; by, the departmental returns, was 308, attended by 8,883

pupils. The census officers in 1881 returned the number of girls under instruction at 9,771 in the British Districts of the North-Western Provinces, being one girl to 2,169 of the female population. The number of females returned by the Census of 1881 as able to read and write, but not under instruction, in the British Districts, was 21,590, or one in 981 of the female population. Special difficulties attended the cause of female education in the Oudh Districts. Six girls' schools were first opened as an experiment; by 1869 the number had increased to 38 schools, with 879 girls, and in 1870 to 69, with 1,369 girls.

Female Education in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh in 1882.

601. Female Education in the Punjab.- The Despatch of 1854 found the work of female education hardly begun; indeed so far as the returns now available show, there were only 17 schools for girls known to the Department, with 306 pupils in the year 1856-57. The pupils were at first nearly all Muhammadans. The selection of teachers was generally left to the people themselves. In February 1862 a durbar was held at Lahore under Sir R. Montgomery, the Lieutenant-Governor, who impressed upon the European officers and native gentlemen present the importance he attached to the education of women, and invited their co-operation. Again in 1863-64 he stated that " these schools were chiefly remarkable as a proof of the zeal and readiness " with which the people of these Provinces could respond to an external impulse "involving a radical change in their habits, provided they were assured of its " beneficial tendency." By 1865-66 there were 1,029 schools, with 19,561 girls on the rolls. Musalmans and Hindus contributed nearly equal proportions, but the former largely preponderated in Government schools, and the latter in aided schools. Of the schools, 699 were aided, at a cost of Rs. 23,410, and were more or less under native management. Although schools were thus opened and scholars enrolled in large numbers without much difficulty, it appears from subsequent official reports, that a large proportion of the schools were merely rudimentary schools which had existed from time immemorial for the purpose of conveying religious instruction. The character of the education did not seem in 1867-68 to be satisfactory, and in that year, Rs. 10,000 were withdrawn from the grant for girls' schools. The number of schools has gone on steadily decreasing from 1,029 with 19,561 pupils in 1865-66, to 317 schools, with 9,756 pupils in 1881-82. The returns of 1870-71 showed 465 schools for girls, with 11,819 pupils. The Table below, compiled from departmental sources, shows 311 schools in 1881-82, with 9,353 pupils. The Missionaries have, during the past ten years, worked with great success in this field of education in the Punjab, both by the ordinary method of girls' schools, and by means of zanana agencies. The Census Report of 1881 returns 6,101 girls under instruction in the British District of the Punjab, or one girl in 1,416 of the female population; together with 8,407 women in the British Districts able to read and write, but not under instruction, being 1 in 1,028 of the female population. The Census return under the last heading is admitted, however, to be below the truth.

[CHAP. X.

tion. The Census officers in 1881 returned the number of girls under instruction in Bengal at 35,760 (or 5,589 less than the Education Department's total), being 1 girl under instruction in 976 of the female population. According to the census of 1881, the number able to read and write, but not under instruction, was 61,449, or 1 in 568 of the total female population.

(a)Including 3 matriculated students reading for the F. A. Examination in the Free Church of Scotland Normal School.

600. Female Education in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh.- Nowhere has it been sought to promote female education with greater ardour by direct Government agency, as distinguished from private efforts, than in the North-Western Provinces. The early efforts of the Missionaries were succeeded by earnest endeavours on the part of the Education Department. The Despatch of 1854 found (so far as the returns now available show) 17 Missionary girls' schools, with 386 pupils in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. Mr. Reid and Mr. Kempson, the successive Directors of Public Instruction from 1854 to 1878, were strong advocates of female education, while Sir William Muir, who became Lieutenant-Governor in 1868, cordially supported the efforts of the Education Department. The girls' schools existing before 1857 for the most part disappeared in the mutiny. In 1859, a fresh start was made. Mr. Reid was persuaded that if "Government were to appoint 150 Pundits to the charge of as many "schools in every individual District in these Provinces on liberal salaries, we "should have 70,000 or 80,000 girls in these schools before the year was out." As long as Government was willing to spend money freely and to accept mere numbers as a test of success, no difficulties arose. "But," writes our Provincial Committee for the North-Western Provinces, "against anything like "efficiency and reality there were two prominent obstacles." In the absence of educated women teachers, the Department was obliged to employ elderly men whose best working days were past. "It was, however, hoped that in process of "time we might train up women, if they could be found; and it was determined "to establish Normal schools with this object. Competent mistresses were the "first difficulty, and when they were supposed to have been procured, there came "the further difficulty of pupils to train. Married women of a suitable age as "a rule would not be spared by their husbands, and rarely had time for any "continuous study." Respectable widows were not found to be available in any numbers, although an attempt was made in this direction. In 1870-71, the number of girls' schools in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh was 640, with 13,853 pupils. Between 1871 and 1881, a great decrease took place in girls' schools. Their abolition was mainly due to the financial position of the Government in 1876. It was felt that if retrenchments were necessary, they could be carried out in the girls' schools with the least prejudice to education. A further reduction took place in the following year, and whereas in 1875-76, there were in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, 400 Government primary schools for girls, with 9,000 pupils; in 1880-81 only 160 schools remained with 3,757 pupils. The total number of girls' schools in 1882, as shown below by the departmental returns, was 308, attended by 8,883

604. Female Education in Coorg,—In Coorg the only special girls' school in 1871 was at Virajpet, established by the nuns for native Catholic girls. But a number of Coorg girls attended the village schools for boys. In 1882, the returns showed one primary aided school with 26 pupils, and 307 girls in mixed schools* The number of pupils was 333 and the expenditure Rs. 230. The Census Report for 1881 returns 431 girls under instruction or 1 in 180 of the female population; together with 356 women able to read and write but not under instruction, being 1 in 239 of the female population.

605, Female Education in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts — Girls' schools were first established in 1867, and numbered 27 in 1870-71 with 671 pupils. Experiments were made in opening girls' schools in towns, but many of the institutions thus established did not prove permanent, and in 1881-82, only 12 schools were returned with 368 pupils, as shown in the following table. The decline is attributed in the Provincial Report to the want of active interest in the matter by the local Education Department, which has adopted the principle that Government must follow the lead of native effort in regard to female education. The Census Report of 1881 returned 356 pupils under instruction, or one in every 3,650 of the female population; together with 789 women able to read and write, but not under instruction, being 1 in 1,638 of the female population.

Female Education in the Haidarabad Assigned District in 1882,*

	OoTZBSnmrr JHBTIVKOR.			Oxass lysImnojis, AZDKD JJKD UAWXDW) (mron b-snttmoor).			Mixed Schools.	Tom.	Total Brpoidture.
	Normal Schools.	Secondary Schools.	Primary Schools.	Normal Schools.	Secondary Schools.	Primary School?.			
Number of Institutions	*□#	« *« ia«	8	. **	**.	4	70	12	B s . 3*524
Pupils			269			99		438	

606. Census Returns of Female Education for 1881 —It may be interesting to summarise the facts disclosed by the Census of 1881 in regard to female education in India. It will be observed that the year 1881 is not the year to which the General Tables of the Commission refer; and the accuracy of the Census Returns has been questioned in several Provinces.

Female Education in British India in 1881 according to the Census Returns,

PHOTTBTCB.	Total female population.	No. of girls under instruction.	No. of females not under instruction but able to read and write.	PsaroKnoir TO TOTU. Fnuxa POH3X*WO».	
				Girls as dea iostrnrtrKubat fat cmcx	Female* who read and write* infraction.
Madras ,	15*749*588	39>*04	94*57*	I in 403	i in 166
Bombay ... - *	7,956,696	18,460	32MS	1 * 431	1 ,, 244
Bengal . . . * *	34>9*M7&	35,76°	61,449	I » 976	1 * \$68
North-Western Provinces and Oadh .	21,195^3	0,771	21,490	I ,, 2,169	1 » 981
Punjab	8,640,384	6,101	8*4^7	1 * Mi6	i ,, 1,028
Central Provinces . .	4*879,356	3>W	4*187	. 1 » *539	1 ,, 1,163
Assam.....	2,377*723	1,068		1 ,, 2,226	* n *>33*
Coorg . - ^ .	77,863	431	356	x ft 180	1 ,, 219
Haidarabad Assigned Districts .	1,292,181	356	789	1 ,, 3*^3°	1 f> 1,638
Tom. - .	97,080,374	114,222	225,783	1 in 849	1 ift 43&

* Exclusive of Ajmir, with & total female population of 11,745,766, who* 31,058 gate *» xetmaed aa o&desr mfractkMO, wotoen as to read a&d -write. Total for British IndU. 1+5, <3 girl* under fitstroctioa: aad 358,486 who can read aad wciit To total naafaer of women fdaetied or belog <&kfetod r/z. Stijaf India, is therefore, just ore- 404,004.

607. Female Education throughout India in 1882.—The following Table has been compiled from the statistics of female education, obtained from Departmental sources, and given at the end of the Report:—

FEMALE EDUCATION IN BRITISH INDIA IN 1882.

Return* showing the number of Institutions and Scholars on March jjs I, 1882.

Table with columns: PROVINCES, Class of Institutions, and various school categories (Departmental, Aided, Un-aided under inspection, Un-aided not under inspection, Total, etc.). Rows include provinces like North-West, Bombay, and Assam.

...-a8#.. 585 ^*^0*744 i*59 799 Examination in the free Chitroh. Normal School. In Middle English schools. In Middle Vernacular schools. In Primary English schools. In Primary Vernacular schools. In Training schools for masters. Excluding three Primary schools with 60 pupils, and 1 Normal adjoel with 3 pupils, in Ajmir. Including 840 pupils in primary departments.

608. **Review Of the above Statement**—The first feature which strikes us in the last Table, when compared with the figures given in the previous paragraphs, is the great aggregate increase in female education for all India during the past ten years. This increase has been fairly spread over the larger Provinces, with the exception of the Punjab and the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. The next feature which deserves attention is the very large proportion of effort which is devoted to the primary education of girls as compared with their secondary or higher instruction. In this matter the action of the departmental authorities, missionary societies, and other managers of girls schools, seems in complete accord with the present necessities of female education in India, With the exception of Bengal, and in a much smaller degree of Madras, secondary education for girls is entirely in the hands of missionary bodies and native managers. The third feature calling for notice is the different view taken in different Provinces, with regard to the function of direct Government agency in the matter of female primary education. Throughout India, the total number of pupils in Government girls' primary schools is 23,850, or one half of those in aided or unaided schools under inspection, namely, 58,570. In Bengal, Assam, and Coorg there are no Government primary schools for girls. In Madras, the pupils in the Government primary schools for girls are only about one-ninth of those in the aided and unaided primary schools under inspection. In the North-Western Provinces, Oudh, and the Punjab the proportion is 3*5 to 5. In Bombay, the number of pupils in the departmental primary schools for girls is 11,238, against 10,621 in aided and unaided primary schools. In the Central Provinces, the girls in Government primary schools amount to 2,676, or five times the number (namely, 532), in aided and unaided schools under inspection. In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts the former are nearly fifty per cent as the latter.

609. **Non-departmental Agencies**—The relative success obtained by the Education Department as compared with the various extra-departmental agencies is, therefore, by no means uniform in regard to the numerical results. These results, however, depend not merely on the view which the departmental authorities may take, but also on the amount of extra-departmental agency available for the work. That amount varies in different Provinces. We do not think it either desirable or possible to lay down any hard-and-fast rule with reference to the division of labour between departmental and extra-departmental agencies in the different parts of India. In certain tracts, for example in the Central Provinces, there would be scarcely any female education but for the existence of the Government primary schools. In Bombay, it seems that the time has come when female education may be largely extended by means of private effort, if such effort be liberally aided. As a general rule, we are anxious to see the extension of female education conducted on the basis of grant-in-aid in a greater degree than heretofore, and to that end we shall, at the end of this Chapter, make certain specific recommendations with regard to the grant-in-aid rules.

610. **Female Education: Municipalities and Local Boards.**—The action of Municipalities varies very widely with regard to female education. The truth is that native public opinion has not yet decided either as to the expediency of school-life for girls, or as to the claims of female education on Municipal funds. Some Municipal bodies have shown a fair amount of liberality to girls' schools, including those conducted by Missionaries. Other Municipalities have not recognised their corporate duty in the matter of female instruction; and an apprehension has been expressed that Municipal grants will

not be given to girls⁵ schools. The same difference, although in a less degree, characterises the attitude of the Local Boards to female education. In so far as Municipalities and Local Boards are the exponents of native public feeling, such a want of uniformity is at present inevitable. In this, as in many other respects, the national development of female education in India must wait upon the growth of native public opinion ; although it is possible for officials[^] and for enlightened members of the native community, to do much to abridge the transition stage. The contributions from Local and Municipal funds for female education in all India in 1881-82, were Es. 107,889; the total expenditure being Rs. 847,971- The expenditure by Municipal and Local Boards was nearly one-half of the expenditure from Provincial revenues on female education, namely, Rs. 252,878. It amounted to nearly three times the expenditure from fees in girls⁹ schools, namely, Rs. 44,539. The proportion varies very greatly in different Provinces, as will be seen from the statistics given in a subsequent paragraph. By far the largest share of Municipal and Local contributions is paid in Bombay, where they amount to Rs. 51,619, or nearly one-half of the whole sum for all India.

611* Other Agencies*—But while the action of Municipal and Local bodies still displays an absence of uniformity with regard to female education, other agencies are at work which tend steadily and powerfully towards its extension. The Commission has not before it returns showing the increase of girls' schools under native management, but there is every reason to believe that the number has largely augmented of late years. The Missionaries are also extending their operations, and endowments are from time to time made by wealthy natives for the promotion of female education. The total expenditure from these and other sources, unconnected with the Provincial revenues or with Local or Municipal funds, amounted in 1881-82 to Rs. 442,665. This sum is more than one-half of the total expenditure on female education, excluding of course schools for Europeans and Eurasians which do not come within the purview of the Commission. It is nearly twice as much as the expenditure from Provincial funds; four times as much as the expenditure from Local or Municipal funds; and ten times as much as the expenditure from fees levied in girls⁵ schools. Native associations and mixed Committees of Natives and Europeans interested in the cause of female education are gradually springing up. For example, the Arya Mahila Samaj of Poona, composed chiefly of Maratha ladies of position, may be expected to exercise an important influence in the capital of the Deccan. Associations of Natives and Europeans for the promotion of female education on a secular basis, form one of the hopeful signs of the times.

612* Mixed Schools for Boys and Girls —There seems to be a general consensus of opinion among the witnesses examined by the Commission, that mixed schools are not suitable for this country. Yet in some Provinces, the girls found in boys' schools amount to many thousands. Most of these are undoubtedly mere infants. As, moreover, it is impossible to establish a girls' school in every village, attendance at a boys' school will often be a girl's only chance of learning anything, and in that case it should not be discouraged. Hitherto, little or nothing seems to have been done in India in the way of establishing schools for children under seven years of age. Such schools, under a bright and well-trained mistress, would probably be found most useful in laying the foundation for the further education of both sexes. The return of

! in mixed schools given in a previous paragraph shows over 42,000 pupils

11^pbois of this description for all India. Of these' 22,799 are returned from from Madras, and 4,296 from Bombay. Assam, Coorg, and the

Haidarabad Assigned Districts contribute 845 to the total. It seems possible that a large number of girls below seven years of age might be brought under instruction by means of infant schools, and in our Recommendations we express the view that such schools should be liberally encouraged.

613. Subjects of Instruction for Girls.—As the subjects of instruction laid down by the Department for girls do not in general differ much from those for boys, it does not seem necessary to present a detailed account of them. They comprehend the usual amount of reading, writing, and arithmetic, with some grammar, geography, and history. In Madras, the standards are nearly the same as for boys, with needle-work added, and with singing as an optional subject. It is stated in the evidence that as girls do not usually remain at school more than 2 1/2 years on an average, a large portion of the scheme must be quite beyond their reach. The standards also are said to require adaptation, especially the higher ones. A desire has been expressed for more instruction in arithmetic on Indian methods. History, geography, and hygiene are considered by some witnesses to be useless, while others think that the fault is in the way in which they are taught. It certainly seems difficult to bring all these subjects within the time likely to be spent in the education of an Indian girl. The simple rules of cleanliness and health, might, if judiciously presented, be reckoned among practical subjects. It appears to be generally felt that some revision of the standards is required to adapt them to the actual wants of girls' schools. In the Central Provinces, while the scheme of studies is the same as for boys, an equal amount of attention is not in fact given to geography and grammar, while it is found that girls do not make so much progress in arithmetic as boys. Singing is occasionally attempted, and needle-work in several branches is attended to. In the North-Western Provinces, the books used for boys are in use for girls also. But great complaints are made as to their unsuitability, in respect both of subject and of language. Roman Urdu is used in mission schools, and a few books have been prepared for them, but much is still wanting in this respect. In Bombay there are special standards of instruction for girls' schools, which are lower than those for boys, but include needle-work in addition. Several ladies who have given evidence consider that sufficient stress is not laid on this important branch of female education. History is entirely excluded from the course and is regarded by some as an unnecessary subject, while arithmetic up to fractions is looked upon by others as beyond the proper range of primary education for girls. In the Punjab, the course is the same as for boys, but it is found that girls only attempt the easier portions of it. This is not surprising, inasmuch as the primary course in this Province includes Persian, and arithmetic up to its highest branches. The witnesses generally think that the standards for girls should be lowered in the Punjab; and at least one important Association objects to the introduction of Persian into the curriculum. The girls' schools for the most part teach in the Nagari or the Gurmukhi character, and in the dialect of the Punjab, but a complaint is made that books in these vernaculars are not easily obtained. In Bengal, the standards have been revised in consultation with managers of girls' schools, and although the Inspectress desires to see them still further simplified, with a view to improve the teaching, the witnesses with whom this subject is a speciality do not

express dissatisfaction with them. They only desire to see the revised standards brought more generally and definitely into use.

614. Subjects of Instruction for Girls,-Needle-work-It may be stated generally that the instruction given to girls does not generally differ from that prescribed for boys, but the standard is lower, and needle-work is added. There does not seem to be much variety in the style of needle-work taught.

Plain work is useful, even when taught on the English method, instead of the native. Fancy-work after European fashions is being largely adopted, and no doubt affords a resource for the less hard-worked occupants of the zannas. But complaints are with justice made that native styles of embroidery are being neglected for English. Whoever has seen what Indian women are capable of accomplishing in this respect, will be sorry that the native art should be neglected.

615. Text-books for Girls.—Little seems to have been done in the way of preparing special text-books for use in girls' schools. It was stated indeed that a work had been introduced in the Punjab, intended, as indicated by its name "Stri Shiksha," for the teaching of women. But grave objection was taken to the contents of this book, and it does not appear to be now sold by Government authority. The Persian works in use seem also to be objected to on moral grounds. In this country even more than in others, the life of women is a thing apart from that of men, and it is unlikely that books prepared for boys will be either interesting or suitable to girls. Morality, no doubt, is the same for both sexes and for all classes; still the particular lessons in morality to be inculcated on boys, are certainly not those primarily needed for girls. For example, we desire boys to grow in many virtues; the native community does not wish to see its girls advancing in boldness and independence of spirit. It is not to be expected that men should be good judges of what is useful or interesting for little girls. Hence we are not likely to see good general reading-books for girls until competent native ladies devote themselves to the preparation of them. We have received with pleasure specimens of such works lately prepared by Pandita Ramabai. Meanwhile, advantage may be taken of the assistance of English ladies who have acquired sufficient facility in the vernaculars. Nor are school-books alone wanting. Witnesses have drawn attention to the lack of suitable literature to be read by educated women at home, Bengal publishes a vernacular magazine written and edited by, and for, native ladies. This is an encouraging sign, and it indicates what is wanting in Provinces where other languages are spoken.

616. Instruction and Text-books—It appears, on the whole, that the scheme of study in girls' schools has been formed too much on the model of that for boys. The history of female education in modern India would lead us to expect this. It has been devised and set on foot by men as an addition to the system established for boys. Many women have indeed devoted themselves to this work, and have been the real agency in introducing and fostering female education. The statements by lady-witnesses form one of the most interesting sections of the evidence collected by the Commission. But ladies have not hitherto been much consulted as to the arrangements made by the Department. Hence there is a want of careful adaptation of the means to the end. The present system may perhaps serve to turn out a certain number of girls instructed up to a certain standard. But how girls may be fitted to fill efficiently and intelligently the very peculiar place appointed for them in the life of this country, is a matter the consideration of which requires at once an enlightened sympathy with the female mind, and a close acquaintance with the conditions and customs of Indian women. It is no disparagement to the Education Department to say that in these respects it has much to learn.

617. Agencies for Female Education other than Schools*—The difficulties of extending female education by means of schools have already been mentioned. The two principal ones are—the short duration of the school-going life of Indian women after marriage and the seclusion of Indian women after marriage. The latter difficulty is being overcome by a change in the custom of the country which

present compels the early marriage of girls, at an age rarely extending beyond their eleventh or twelfth year. For the second difficulty several solutions have been attempted, and to each of these we propose to devote a paragraph.

618. Zanana Missions.—The most successful efforts yet made to educate Indian women after leaving school, have been conducted by Missionaries. In every Province of India, ladies have devoted themselves to the work of teaching in the homes of such native families as are willing to receive them. Their instruction is confined to the female members of the household, and, although based on Christian teaching, is extended to secular subjects. The degree in which the two classes of instruction are given, varies in different zanana missions; but in almost every case secular teaching forms part of the scheme. Experience seems to have convinced a large proportion of the zealous labourers in this field, that the best preparation for their special or religious work, consists in that quickening of the intellectual nature which is produced by exercising the mind in the ordinary subjects of education. The largest and most successful of the zanana missions are composed of one or more English ladies, with a trained staff of Native Christians or Anglo-Indian young women who teach in the zananas allotted to them. They derive their funds from the missionary societies in Europe and America, supplemented in many cases by local subscriptions in India, and by the private means of the English ladies who conduct the work. The Commission has not complete statistics with regard to the results achieved. But the figures* accessible to it, together with the enquiries made by it in the various Provinces, show that these results are already considerable, and that they are steadily increasing. The two impediments in the way of their more rapid extension are—first, the natural reluctance of many natives to admit into their families an influence hostile to their own religious beliefs; and, second, the uncertain attitude of the Education Department towards such missions. With the first of these obstacles the Commission cannot deal. But we have observed that much has been accomplished in this respect by the tact, courtesy, and wise moderation of the ladies engaged in the work. The second impediment comes within our cognisance; and we have provided for it by a specific Recommendation, *that grants for zanana teaching be, recognised as a proper charge on public funds, and be given wider rules which will enable those engaged in it, to obtain substantial aid for such secular teaching as may be tested by an Inspectress^ or other female agency*•

619. Secular Zanana Agencies—But while the Commission cannot deal with the reluctance of orthodox native families to subject their female members to **influences** hostile to their national faiths, the native community is itself beginning to take action in the matter. In all the Presidency towns, and in many of the large cities of India, it is now possible for a wealthy native to obtain instruction for the ladies of his family within his own house. A distinct class of zanana agencies on a secular basis is springing up, conducted by committees of native gentlemen, or by **mixed** committees of Natives and Europeans, with the object, in some cases, of imparting education in zananas without any element of religious teaching; in others, of testing by periodical examinations, and encouraging by rewards, the home-education of governesses. These agencies are already doing useful work, although on a comparatively small scale, and the Commission trusts that they will receive a still larger measure of sympathy and co-operation from English ladies in India. Cases have been brought to our notice of a native family of rank employing a European or Anglo-Indian governess; in other cases a Native Christian governess is employed, on the understanding that she will confine her instruction to secular subjects. The Parsi and Brahma communities not only permit their girls to

remain longer at school than is the custom with the Hindus and Muham-madans, but they have among them an educated class of young women well qualified to conduct the work of instruction in private families. While we look to the schools to carry on the general extension of female education, we regard as a hopeful sign the desire for improved education at home; and we have framed our Recommendations with a view to give the fullest encouragement to all zanana agencies, whether secular or religious, so far as is compatible with a due regard to economy combined with secular results.

620. Literature for the Zanana—The want of school-books for girls has been already mentioned, and the same remarks apply to the dearth of a suitable literature for the zanana. An education which ends with the mere task-work of receiving instruction from a mistress, fails to accomplish its purpose. On the one hand, we find 277,207 women in India (including the Native States) not at school, yet who can read and write. On the other hand, we find a deficiency of modern books in the vernaculars, suitable for their perusal. This is a difficulty which can best be met by the efforts of educated men and women among the natives themselves, and by the native literary societies, especially the societies for the promotion of female education which are now so numerous throughout India. We earnestly commend this difficulty to their attention, and we hope that the Local Governments will not be found wanting in the encouragement of any well-devised efforts, whether by societies or by individuals, towards its solution.

621. Quality of the Instruction in Girls' Schools.—The examinations which have been gradually prescribed for girls' schools in the different Provinces enable us to test the quality of the instruction given. But it should be borne in mind that the stringency of the standards is not identical in all the Provinces ; and that while, on the one hand, all girls' schools are not subject to examination; on the other, it is not everywhere possible to separate European and Anglo-Indian girls from natives in the returns. Subject to these remarks, the following Table exhibits the results of the departmental examinations in girls' schools. The third column does not take cognisance of girls in "mixed" or boys' schools; but only of those in institutions intended entirely for girls.

622—Results of the Examinations in Girls' Schools, 1881-82.

PROVINCES.	Class of Institutions	Number of pupils on the rolls on March 31st, 1882.	Total number examined in departmental or other prescribed examinations.	Number passed.	Percentage of successful scholars to those presented for examination.	Number of trained mistresses who passed for certificates in 1881-82.
1	3	3	4	5	6	7
MAJDHAS . . . <	Secondary .	389	292	109	37.3	...
	Primary .	20,365	10,426	6,819	65.4	...
	Normal	*57	76	38	50.0	...
	TOTAL	20,911	10,794	6,966	64.53	
BOMBAY . . . <	Secondary.	538	311	134	43.09	
	Primary .	21,859	6,514	3,366	51.67	
	Normal	73	45	3*	68.89	31
	TOTAL,	22,47	6,870	3,531	51.39	3*
CALCUTTA . . . <	Collegiate .	6	5	4	80.00	·
	Secondary .	1,051	9	8	88.88	...
	Primary .	17,482	20 x	157	78.10	...
	Normal .	41	· ·	·
	TOTAL.	18,550	215	169	78.60	...

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twoK orm^asfaols for mikfaegses with. 4J pupils, who are trained to become teachers in native schools and zananas,

Boys' School at the Free Church Normal School,

a pupils studying in the Free Church Normal School.

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onfipassedths? JL and 3 the matriculation Examination of the Calcutta University.

PROVINCES.	Class of Institutions.	Number of pupils on the rolls on March 31st, 1882.	Total number examined in departmental or other prescribed examinations.	Number passed.	Percentage of successful scholars to those presented for examination.	Number of trained mistresses who passed for certificates in 188x-8s.
j	2	3	4	5	6	7
NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES & OUDH.	Secondary.	68	66	31	46.97	
	Primary	8,726	984	520	53.84	7
	Normal					
	TOTAL	8,883	1,050	551	52.48	7
Punjab & Bahawalpur.	Secondary.	8	171	5	2.92	
	Primary	9,207	138	51	29.83	it
	Normal					
	TOTAL	9,353	171	51	29.83	it
Central Provinces & Berar.	Secondary.	3,208	527	270	51.23	4
	Primary		7	2	28.57	»
	Normal					%
	TOTAL	3,228	534	272	50.93	2
Assam.	Primary	1,209	1	1	100	»
	Normal					»
	TOTAL	1,209	1	1	100	»
Coastal Provinces.	Primary	26	»	»%
	TOTAL	26	»	»
	Primary	368	167	m	66.46	
Hyderabad (Districts.)	Primary	368	167	m	66.46	...
	TOTAL	368	167	m	66.46	...
	Collegiate.	6	5	4	80.00	
Total for India.	Secondary.	2,054	678	382	56.33	
	Primary	82,420	18,991	11,295	59.47	
	Normal	525	125	79	63.20	40
	TOTAL	84,999	19,802	11,553	58.84	40

1 These figures include 698 European and Eurasian children.
 § AC the upper and lower primary examinations. The result of other examinations are not tabulated.
 j AU the girls are examined, and the results of their examination are recorded in the school minute books and in the Inspector's diaries. Only those who were examined in the lower primary and upper primary standards, and who passed such examinations, are recorded in columns 4 and 5.
 f Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.
 ft Girls attending-Boys' schools are not included in this return.

623. Review of Examination Results in Girls' Schools (1881-82) —

The only Province which during the year under review sent female students to the collegiate examinations was Bengal ; the progress there made in the higher education of girls has been referred to, and the success of two girl candidates at the B.A. examination in the following year, although too late for the purview of this Report, afforded a theme for the address of the Vice-Chancellor of the Calcutta University in March 1883. Apart from circumstances peculiar to Provinces, the principal feature of the above Table is the overwhelming proportion of girl candidates at the primary examinations. The total number examined in the Primary schools was close on 19,000, of whom 11,295 passed. The proportion of successful candidates, exceeding 59 per cent., shows that the instruction in primary girls' schools, as tested by the standards prescribed, is fairly efficient. Only 678 girls presented themselves at the secondary examinations, of whom 42 per cent, were successful. But it should be observed that while rather less than one-fourth of the girls in primary schools presented themselves for examination, one-third of those under secondary instruction appeared as candidate. It should be noted, however, that the only departmental examinations at which girls from schools in Bengal are invited to appear, are those for the various classes of scholarships, middle and primary. The discouraging features in the foregoing return are the paucity of the supply of trained mistresses, and the scanty source of supply for the teaching staff, with 85,000 girls to teach. Only 78 mistresses passed examinations in the year. Of these 31 obtained certificates in Bombay, 7 in the North-

Western Provinces, and 2 in the Central Provinces. In Madras, 38 passed the Normal school examination, but without attaining the standard prescribed for a certificate.

624. **Deficiency of Teachers for Girls' Schools**—These figures bring us to the root of the difficulty in regard to the extension of girls' education in India. They show that the supply of trained female teaching power is wholly inadequate to the demand. By comparing the increase of girls at school with the number of trained mistresses, during a period of years, the inadequacy becomes more apparent. The same result is arrived at by a scrutiny of the local distribution of Normal school attendance. There were only 515 girls at Normal schools throughout all India in 1881-82. Of these, 157 were in Madras, 138 in the Punjab, and 73 in Bombay. Bengal, with its 18,550 girls in female schools, had only 41 young women receiving a training in Normal institutions. Excepting Madras and Bombay, no Province returns any candidates passed at Normal school examinations, saving 2 girls in the Central Provinces and 7 in the North-Western Provinces. We desire to call attention to the altogether disproportionate supply of mistresses, as compared with the demand which the foregoing Table discloses.

625. **Male Teachers for Girls' Schools**.—The evidence before the Commission shows that a feeling exists in many parts of India against the employment of men as teachers and inspectors in girls' schools. Hitherto, it has not been found practicable in the various Provinces to carry on the work of female schools without such agency. The efforts which are being made to call into existence a more adequate supply of female teachers will be presently considered. The majority of girls' schools are still conducted by male teachers. Only elderly men are considered suitable for the work, and any attempt at a wide extension of female education by means of young male teachers, would be opposed to the sentiments of the people. It follows, therefore, that the teaching staff of the girls' schools at present has to be mainly recruited from superannuated schoolmasters, many of whom have lost their powers of work. In Maratha and other Southern Districts the difficulty of finding suitable male teachers is less felt than in Provinces which were long under Muhammadan rule.

626. **Female Teachers for Girls' Schools**.—As yet it has not been found possible to obtain anything like an adequate supply of trained female teachers. Many plans have been tried in the different Provinces, but all have ended in comparative failure. The Bengal Department even attempted to utilise female votaries of the Vaishnava sect as teachers. The members of this sect, male and female, renounce caste and devote themselves to a religious life. At one time, the female Vaishnavas seem to have contributed a good deal to the instruction of their countrywomen, and at the beginning of the century, many of the Bengal zanas had preceptresses belonging to this class. But an effort, cautiously and patiently made by the Education Department to train them as teachers for girls' schools, ended in unfavourable results. The only native women who can be induced to regard teaching as a profession in life, seem to be native Christians; the wives of schoolmasters in certain Provinces; and, under certain conditions, widows. A considerable supply is obtained from the first-mentioned class by Missionaries, both Protestant and Roman Catholic. But the services of such teachers are almost entirely absorbed by the schools of the religious agencies which train them; although in Madras there seems to be a reasonable prospect that other schools will in time obtain a supply of teachers from this source. They form, however, an important element in the extension of female education on the basis of grant-in-aid. Both the

to increasing the number of their female teachers in proportion to the <temimr for them in their own schools. Nor does the objection to male teachers appear to carry so much weight with the Protestant Christians as it does among other sections of the native community.

627- FbdieIs Education j Scloollll^st6^s Wives es Ts&difirs—This

latter source of supply would be capable of wider application, if it could produce the requisite number of teachers. The experience of the Education Department in Bombay and the Central Provinces has a special bearing on this subject. Many of the young schoolmasters of parts of India do not seem to object to their wives engaging in school work. An excellent female Normal school at Jabalpur carries on its operations in the same town as the male Normal school; and a number of the youths who are being prepared as teachers, send their wives to undergo a corresponding instruction in the female school. The latter derives its pupils from all available sources; but we refer to it specially in regard to this branch of its work. The young women live a strictly resident life within their own school, and, after going through a course of instruction, take part in the actual work of teaching a girls' school attached to the institution. When duly qualified, they are sent out as mistresses of schools in the village or town to which their husbands are posted. In this way, a certain number of localities have been supplied with both a boys' and a girls' school, conducted respectively by the husband and wife. The special success of the female Normal school at Jabalpur is due to the tact and admirable powers of management of the Lady Superintendent. But the experiment has also succeeded elsewhere, and schoolmasters' wives are now recognised as a hopeful source of supply for female teachers. In some parts of India, however, schoolmasters object to their wives taking public employment of this sort. As the pecuniary advantages of the arrangement become more widely understood, and as the sentiment that married women should never work for their livelihood loses its influence among the higher castes, the number of female teachers of this class will probably increase.

628. Widows as TeacherS.—Our particular attention has been given to suggestions which have been made with regard to the more extended employment of native widows as teachers. The lot of 'the Hindu widow is so hard, that we should rejoice if it were possible to provide a scope for her useful employment in infant schools and in the education of her *countrywomen*. But here again native public opinion in many Provinces stands in the way. The Hindu widow, although deprived of any earthly career, beyond household drudgery, forms an integral part of the family, and is, in an especial manner, subject to family control. At present it does not seem likely that respectable Hindu families would permit their widowed members to *engage* in so public a labour as that of a schoolmistress, in numbers at all proportionate to the demand. The Education Department has done something to encourage movements in this direction. Certain of its efforts have failed to produce favourable results, owing to the peculiarly exposed position in which a Hindu widow finds herself when she steps outside the strictly guarded routine of family life. On the other hand, several such experiments have proved that success is possible. The Female Training College at Ahmedabad shows what can be done in this respect. While deriving its students from all classes, it has so won the confidence of the native community that it obtains a fair number of widows, who resolve to adopt teaching as their work in life. The success of this institution, as in the case of the female Normal School at Jabalpur, is in a special degree due to the high personal qualities of the Lady Superintendent. But as native public

opinion advances, we hope that an increasing number of training institutions will obtain female students from the same class, and that every encouragement, pecuniary and otherwise, will be given to such efforts. If Hindu widows could be induced in considerable numbers to take up teaching as a profession, one of the chief difficulties in the extension of female education would be solved. An independent and interesting career would at the same time be opened up to a large class of women, whose lot in life is very hard. The total number of widows in India is 21 millions. Of these, 1 \ millions are below 24 years of age, and are therefore within the period of life when they might be successfully trained as teachers* if they could be persuaded to adopt that profession.

629. Female Education; Difficulties of Female Teachers—We do not, however, under-rate the obstacles in the way of such a movement. Apart from the isolated position of a young Hindu widow who leaves the family circle, female teachers in India have great and special difficulties to contend against. In the first place, they hold a novel and an exceptional position which exposes them to unfriendly comment. In the second place, the Indian school-mistress often finds two enemies ready made in the village to which she is sent. There is the old incapable male teacher whom she supersedes, and the youth who assisted him, but whose masculine dignity will not permit of his serving peaceably under a woman. Lady Superintendents of female training colleges, who sympathise with the difficulties of the situation, can do much to pave the way for the ultimate success of the young women whom they send forth. For example, the Lady Superintendent of the Ahmedabad Female Training College never gives her consent to a widow teacher being posted in a locality, until she has secured for her the countenance and support of the leading native families. No doubt other Lady Superintendents of female training colleges take the same precautions. But in spite of all such kindly safeguards, the position of a female teacher, especially if she be a widow, is still a difficult one in an Indian hamlet. Many of these difficulties would, however, disappear if arrangements could be made for employing trained female teachers in their own villages.

630. Training Of Female Teachers—In the general review of the situation which precedes our Recommendations, we shall summarise the limitations and conditions which apply to the various classes from which female teachers can be derived. We are not hopeful of any sudden or immediate expansion of the supply. We once more repeat that in this, as in other matters connected with female education, if an expansion is to be genuine and lasting, it must depend upon the growth of native public opinion. Government can, however, by rendering liberal aid to training colleges, by an extended system of stipends to the students in such institutions, and by a generous scale of grants for schools which employ certificated female teachers, do much to draw forth all the capabilities of the existing sources of supply. It would not be easy to improve the course of instruction in some of the female training colleges which we have visited. In our Recommendations, therefore, we make no suggestions in regard to the course of instruction, and merely advise that liberal inducements should be offered alike to Native, European, and Eurasian young women, to qualify themselves as teachers for girls* schools.

631. Female Education*—The Table on the following page shows the expenditure from all sources on female education, in the year 1881-82, so far as has been ascertained by the Commission. It deals only with schools for ~~1881-82~~ and is therefore exclusive of the general expenditure on European and

EXPENDITURE ON FEMALE EDUCATION IN BRITISH INDIA IN 1881-82.

PROVINCES.	Expenditure from Provincial Funds.	Expenditure from Local or Municipal Funds.*	Expenditure from fees.†	Expenditure from other sources.	Total expenditure on female education.	Total expenditure on education from public funds (Provincial, Local and Municipal.)	Percentage of expenditure in columns a and b to total expenditure on education from Public Funds.	Percentage of Provincial expenditure in column 2) to total expenditure in column <5.	Percentage of Provincial expenditure in column % to total expenditure on education from Provincial Funds.	Percentage of expenditure in column 6 to total expenditure on education.	J&EMABKS.
1	a	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Madras .	51,211	8,636	12,693	1*53*629	2,26,169	16,32,345	366	22'64	5'22	6*52	
Bombay	49,780	51*619	.9*5*8	67,790	1,78,707	19*82,535	5*11	27*86	4-37	5*21	
Bengal	76,819	2,540	17,772	1,26^37	2*33,768	26,80,510	2*96	34'33	2*90	3'56	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh,		5*7 5²	i,6oi	38,873	79,082	15*77*695	2*44 4'54		3*54	3*84	
Punjab	33325	21,985	2*931	47,187	1,04,928	12,31,047	4'45	31*28	5*21	6'44	
Contra! Provinces.	6,879	14,150		4*930	25*959	5,28,802	3*98	26'46	i'90	3'85	
Assam #	643	. t*6g8	24	3*239	5*604.	2,05,076	r 14	11*47	*45	180	
Ooorg • □ * » » • «	120		M» »»□	no	230	20,293	'59	52*17	'91	1*01	
Haidarabad Assigned Districts	1,745	1*509		270	3,524	3*24,381	1*00	49*51	'74-	*99	
Total foe Indta a .	2,52,878	1,07,889	44,580	4,42,665	8,47,9712	i 1,01,82,084	3*64	29*82	3*57 4*05	1	

* Excluding expenditure on Schools for European* and Eurasian*.
† Including expenditure on Frofemlouai and Technical Institution* end on Sfiheol* for Europeans and Eurasians

* DIQQuaiK uNujn uuruu aa «*w*«*«*»
ExolndiDg the apendituro on Fouialo education in À juuir, amounting to Bti 635.

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Image Courtesy of The La Trobe Collection, State Library of Victoria
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For many years to come, the respectable native community will desire to shelter their daughters from public observation, and to seclude them from contact with males not belonging to the family. The problem is how to reconcile school-life with these popular feelings. Our Recommendations endeavour to provide, so far as it is possible for general proposals to provide, for such an adaptation. Female teachers, female inspectors, female surveillance on the way to and from school, and arrangements sufficiently liberal to permit of the boarding-house system being extended in girls' schools, will help towards the solution of the problem. But we hope that apart from Recommendations of a general character, such as it is the function of this Commission to make, no opportunity will be lost of taking advantage of special adaptations, applicable to individual localities, or suited to the views of particular classes of the people.

635. Inspectresses for Girls' Schools.—In the summary immediately preceding our Recommendations, we shall briefly state our opinion as to the unsuitability of male inspection for girls' schools. But we think it well that the practical objections to male inspection, as felt by female teachers in India, should be distinctly realised. Miss Collett, the Lady Superintendent of the Ahmedabad female Training College, whose careful supervision of her students after they have gone out into the world has already been mentioned, gave important evidence on this point. After expressing her opinion that there should be at least one European Lady Inspectress for the Bombay Presidency, she thus describes the actual working of the system of male inspection now in force: “The present

“in most cases, men who are willing and anxious their b&^feut
 “who are quite unable to enter into, or to understand, ^Kiph
 “ beset female teachers. In the first place, the peculiar\^^staB^^^3arder
 “ which women in India are brought up, tend to make their>p^ nmftfwhen
 “they come in contact with men who are strangers to them; they have been
 “ accustomed to such a system of repression, and dependence on others, that in
 “ nine cases out of ten they will rather suffer injustice than make a stand for
 “themselves \ consequently they need a peculiar kind of treatment and encour-
 “ agement, quite unnecessary in the case of male teachers. Besides this, female
 “ teachers are a new element in most villages, and their conduct is subjected
 “to close scrutiny, and anything but benevolent criticism. I have kn>own of
 “ cases where the Deputy Inspectors, instead of going to the girls' schools to
 “ inspect the records, have ordered the women to bring them to their offices or
 “houses; now the fact of a mistress going to the residence of a Deputy is quite
 “ enough to raise an evil report about her. I only instance this to show how
 “ delicate a matter the treatment of female teachers is. Agam, when women
 “are sent to village schools, they, in most cases, go to replace men who have
 “ been in charge of the schools for many years, and who are naturally enough
 “ annoyed at being turned out to make room for a female teacher. These men
 “ generally hold an influential position in the village, and they do what they
 “ can to stir up the residents against the new-comer, so that the poor mistress
 “ has, at the very commencement of her career, to contend with and overcome
 “ a good deal of smouldering animosity. Then the male assistant considers it
 “*infra dig.* to be under a woman, and is often insubordinate and insulting to
 “ her, doing what he can to subvert her authority and lower her in the eyes of
 “ her pupils; when at last she is driven to report his conduct, the Deputy con-
 “siders her discontented, and does not understand why she should begin by
 “making mmpfufufe against her assistant who got on well *enough* with her
 “ predecessor.”

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636. Female Education; School-fees—The foregoing Table shows the small amount contributed to girls' schools in the shape of fees. Out of a total of Rs. 8,47,971 expended on female education in 1881-82, only Rs. **44,539**, or little more than one-twentieth, were paid as school-fees. We do not, after a careful review of the evidence before the Commission, believe it possible to make any immediate or rapid change in regard to this unsatisfactory aspect of female education in India. We find that many of the most successful of the girls* schools or colleges were compelled for many years to abstain from levying fees at all, while a large proportion actually paid the pupils for attending. Both these practices exist at the present day, although the stronger institutions have discontinued them. They first found it possible to give up paying the girls for attendance; then by slow and cautious degrees they began to levy fees. We look forward to a time when it will be practicable to insist upon adequate fees in girls' schools, and we think that managers of girls* schools should be encouraged to take steps in that direction. But we do not think that the time is yet come for any hard-and-fast rules on this subject. While, therefore, in the summary preceding our Recommendations, we approve generally of the principle of requiring fees, we do not think it essential at present that they should be levied in girls' schools as a condition of grant-in-aid. Much less do we think the time is ripe for laying down any general rule as to the rate of fees in girls* schools. Even when the practice of requiring fees becomes more general, we are of opinion that liberal exemptions should be made in favour of poor girls of promising talents.

637. Prizes for Girls' Schools ,—Indian girls show keen emulation in class, and their faculties seem to develop at an even earlier age than those of boys. Prizes or rewards for progress in school are not only treasured by the girls themselves, but are a source of very great pleasure in their family circle, liberality in the distribution of prizes to girls' schools, acts, therefore, as an incentive, which those who are anxious to extend female education should not disregard. This is well understood by the native managers or committees of management of girls' schools. In some Provinces there is a tendency to make the visit of any officer of position an occasion for a distribution of gifts to the girls. It is often difficult, however, to find books in the local vernacular suitable for this purpose. A girls* literature has still to be created in India, and the prizes for girls' schools often consist of what are **Teally** lesson books, or even blank copy-books, rather than interesting tales. Many substitutes for books are from time to time adopted; such as pencils, trinkets, and above all, sweetmeats. When a benevolent native wishes to give a treat to a girls' school, the first step which suggests itself to his mind is to issue a wholesale order to the village confectioner. On special occasions, a distribution of clothes is made. Such distributions of sweetmeats, or pieces of cloth, are made with an equal hand to the clever and stupid, to the industrious and the idle. But they serve to stimulate public interest in female education ; and donations of sweetmeats were found useful in starting the movement, and in drawing an attendance to schools whose managers have since been able to discontinue the practice. We hope that the production of attractive books suitable for prizes in girls* schools, will receive the attention of the native associations in different parts of India, who are now evincing so much interest in the education of their countrywomen.

638. Scholarships in Girls' Schools. —There is, however, one form of ^sraccd which, even in girls* schools, should be distinctly recognised as won and as intended to enable the pupil to make still further progress. We to scholarships. We believe that scholarships should be given on easier

terms in girls than in boys schools, but they should be given not as charitable doles, but by competition or as the rewards for good work. We have already provided for another class of aid for poor girls, by liberal exemptions from the payment of fees. We are anxious that scholarships should be used, not only as a means for raising the standard of instruction, but also as an inducement to the most promising girls to remain longer at school than at present. We have, therefore, recommended that, while special provision be made for girls scholarships, a certain proportion of them shall be reserved for girls not under twelve years of age. Such scholarships, like all others, should be given as readily and as liberally to schools under private managers as to departmental schools.

639. "Artificial Stimulants" to Girls' Schools.—We are aware that some of the suggestions in the foregoing paragraphs, and several of the specific Recommendations which follow, will be held to create what have been called artificial stimulants to the progress of female education. We can only reply that, after a careful consideration of the evidence collected throughout India, we find that girls' schools have been started only with the aid of such encouragement, and that it is in many places still required for their maintenance and extension. We hope that the time will come when the demand for female education may be as efficient and as widely spread as the demand has now become for boys - education. But we again repeat that the evidence proves that that time has not yet arrived, and meanwhile we think that it would be unwise to neglect any of the harmless methods of encouraging female education which have been found successful in the past and which are in accord with native custom and public feeling at present. It should, however, be noticed that it is chiefly in the hands of private managers that these "artificial stimulants" can be used with good effect.

640. Summary.—Before enumerating our specific Recommendations with regard to girls' schools, we desire to briefly review the situation as disclosed in the foregoing paragraphs. It will have been seen that female education is still in an extremely backward condition, and that it needs to be fostered in every legitimate way. In some Provinces, the sympathies of the people do not yet run sufficiently in this direction to induce local bodies to devote to female education any of the funds at their disposal. Hence we think it expedient to recommend that public funds of all kinds—local, municipal, and provincial—should be chargeable in an equitable proportion for the support of girls' schools as well as boys' schools; and that the former, being in an earlier stage of development, should receive even something more than what might appear to be a strictly impartial share of encouragement. Public opinion in this matter cannot yet be accepted as the standard of what ought to be done. We do not think it necessary to define the classes of girls' schools which should receive encouragement. The principle of religious neutrality prevents aid from being given for religious teaching as such, but we see no reason why such secular teaching as is actually given, if only incidentally, in schools intended mainly for religious teaching, should not be *pro tanto* rewarded. If a girl, in learning to read a religious book, acquires the power of reading the vernacular, it is at least something accomplished, and may serve as a basis for something more. There are so many obstacles to the progress of female education that we think the conditions on which aid is granted to it should be made as easy as possible. It is, moreover, right that more liberal aid should be given for the education of those classes who cannot pay for it themselves, and whose children are often required to help in household work. For these, rules requiring regular attendance should be easy,

lest they defeat their own object. Generally, the maintenance of a girls' school is more expensive than that of a boys' school. Servants have to bring the children from their homes, and the number that can be expected to attend is smaller. Hence it is sometimes found that rates of aid even 50 per cent, higher than those for boys, fail to cover the additional expenditure required. Again, the short time that girls are allowed to remain at school leads to a very large percentage of the pupils being in the lowest stages of instruction. As these need as much attention as those more advanced, it is only just that allowance should in some way be made for them. One great objection made by the native public to the instruction of girls, is that it is of no practical use to them. Too much stress should not be laid on this, as the value of education to a woman must of necessity be unknown to those who have no experience of it. But it ought not to be taken for granted that the instruction which is suitable for a boy must necessarily be good for an Indian girl. In purely literary subjects, girls need not go so far as boys, and there are subjects of a practical kind to which girls might at least be introduced during their school course. It does not appear that much attention has hitherto been given to the production of books suitable for girls, and in some cases the books used have not been selected with sufficient care.

641. Summary—*continued*—We approve of the principle that education should to some extent be paid for by the recipient. But the desire for girls' education has at present to be fostered, and in many parts of the country it has yet to be created. Hence, we would not make the taking of fees an essential condition of obtaining grants, although we would guard against unfair competition in this respect between rival schools. To extend the period given to the education of girls is obviously desirable, and we think that one important means of attaining this object will be the offer of scholarships. If some of these be reserved for girls beyond the usual age to which school attendance extends, there may gradually arise a desire for more knowledge than can be attained within that narrow period. This points in the direction of secondary education for girls, in which a beginning has scarcely been made. We propose that the opportunities for such instruction should be judiciously extended, but only where private effort indicates that the desire for it exists. There are many difficulties in the way of young women attending a school at any distance from their homes. For this reason we think that in special cases it might be well to encourage school-managers to make provision for boarders. It may perhaps be found that Municipal and Local Boards are not in all cases prepared to undertake the management of girls' schools; to force it upon unwilling persons would not be likely to lead to satisfactory results. But where a Board does undertake the management, we think its authority ought to be real and effective. It ought to be able to appoint any mistress it selects, provided, of course, that she is in the judgment of the Education Department qualified for the work. Nor would we deprive the Board of the power of promoting or removing its own teachers, although to check arbitrary or hasty action the Department ought to have a veto in such cases. It should also be borne in mind that as the available funds are limited, and as results are greater and more capable of being tested in girls' schools than in znanas, the former have higher claims than the latter on State aid.

642. Summary—*continued*.—We have seen that one of the principal obstacles to the extension of female education is the difficulty of obtaining suitable teachers. There can be no doubt that women are preferable for this purpose to men; and while we would not altogether exclude male teachers from girls' schools, we believe that female teachers should be gradually and

cautiously substituted for them. In order to induce girls to look forward to teaching as a profession, it seems desirable to encourage pupil-teachers wherever the system is practicable. The pupil-teachers should furnish material for Normal schools, and for Normal classes in connection with ordinary schools where there is sufficient teaching power. The careful and sympathetic management required for such classes, renders them peculiarly suitable for private agency to superintend; and when established by this means, they should be liberally aided. Among other ways of assisting them, the grant of a bonus for each pupil finishing the course, commends itself. At the same time the aid given them should not depend too largely on such success at the final examination. There does not seem to be good reason for confining certificates for teachers to those who have been trained in Normal schools. Fitness to teach should be recognised wherever and in whatever way it may have been acquired, although a Normal school training will always have a special value of its own. The number of *young women* qualified to teach is so small, that it seems necessary to recruit it by special inducements offered both to the pupils and to those who may instruct them. In some places the wives of schoolmasters are almost the only class available as schoolmistresses, and it is expedient to attract as many of them as possible to the work. In other places young women of mixed parentage may be largely employed, if only they can be persuaded to qualify themselves by a sufficient knowledge of the vernacular. By the different plans here indicated, something may be done gradually in the way of raising up a class of women fitted to educate the girls of another generation. What no sweeping measure could at once effect, may be accomplished by a multiplicity of minor plans, each contributing a little.

543* Summary—concluded.—But in the existing circumstances of the women of India, the mere establishment of schools will be by no means sufficient to bring about the general spread of education among them. Public sentiment keeps them secluded in *zananas*, many from their infancy, and many more from the age of eleven or twelve. From this it follows that the education of girls of the better classes cannot be carried on in schools to anything like completion, and that in the case of many it cannot even be begun. Some plan is needed for conveying instruction to those who cannot leave their homes to seek for it, and for prosecuting further the teaching which may have been begun in schools. Agencies for *zanana* teaching are conducting this work with considerable success. Actuated in many cases by religious motives, *zanana* teachers have brought some measure of secular instruction into the homes of those who would otherwise have been wholly debarred from it. We see no reason why this secular instruction, imparted under the supervision of ladies worthy of confidence, should not be recognised and assisted, so far as it can be tested by a proper inspecting agency. Rules for aid to *zanana* teaching should be drawn up in consultation with those who conduct the work, and should be such as to assist them substantially in extending their operations so far as concerns secular teaching. Associations have arisen in some places, aiming at the extension and improvement of female education. These also might be encouraged so far as they produce secular results. In order that these results may be fairly estimated, it seems necessary that the services of sympathetic and well-qualified inspectresses should be more largely made use of. In the present condition of female education in India, the visits of Inspectors are sometimes not only futile, but a positive hindrance to progress. And even where this is not so, a woman is generally much better able to deal with little girls than any man can be. With respect to the management also of girls' schools, it seems most desirable to obtain the

help, wherever possible, of ladies who take an interest in the subject, whether Native or **European**. Nor is the object likely to be attained unless interest is promoted among Native gentlemen by giving them a share in the supervision of the schools. Those who show their sympathy by sending their own daughters to school are more likely to assist in directing the movement, and in rendering it popular among their neighbours.

644. Female Education: Recommendations.—Our Recommendations are—

1. That female education be treated as a legitimate charge alike on Local, on Municipal, and on Provincial Funds, and receive special encouragement.

2. That all female schools or orphanages, whether on a religious basis or not, be eligible for aid so far as they produce any secular results, such as a knowledge of reading or of writing.

3. That the conditions of aid to girls* schools be easier than to boys* schools, and the rates higher—more especially in the case of those established for poor or for low-caste girls.

4. That the rules for grants be so framed as to allow for the fact that girls' schools generally contain a large proportion of beginners, and of those who cannot attend school for so many hours a day, or with such regularity, as boys.

5. That the standards of instruction for primary girls' schools be simpler than those for boys' schools, and be drawn up with special reference to the requirements of home life, and to the occupations open to women.

6. That the greatest care be exercised in the selection of suitable text-books for girls* schools, and that the preparation of such books be encouraged.

7. That, while fees be levied where practicable, no girls' school be debarred from a grant on account of its not levying fees.

8. That special provision be made for girls' scholarships, to be awarded after examination, and that, with a view to encouraging girls to remain longer at school, a certain proportion of them be reserved for girls not under twelve years of age.

9. That liberal aid be offered for the establishment, in suitable localities, of girls' schools in which English should be taught in addition to the vernacular.

10. That special aid be given, where necessary, to girls' schools that make provision for boarders.

11. That the various Departments of Public Instruction be requested to arrange, in concert with managers of girls' schools, for the revision of the code of Rules for grants-in-aid in accordance with the above Recommendations.

12. That, as mixed schools, other than infant schools, are not generally suited to the conditions of this country, the attendance of girls at boys* schools be not encouraged, except in places where girls' schools cannot be maintained.

13. That the establishment of infant schools or classes, under schoolmistresses, be liberally encouraged.

14. That female schools be not placed under the management of Local Boards or of Municipalities unless they express a wish to take charge of them.

15* -That the first appointment of schoolmistresses in girls' schools under the management of Municipal or Local Boards be left to such Boards, with the

proviso that the mistress be either certificated, or approved by the Department ; and that subsequent promotion or removal be regulated by the Boards, subject to the approval of the Department.

16. That rules be framed to promote the gradual supersession of male by female teachers in all girls* schools.

17. That, in schools under female teachers, stipendiary pupil-teacherships be generally encouraged.

18. That the attention of local Governments be invited to the question of establishing additional Normal schools or classes; and that those under private management receive liberal aid, part of which might take the form of a bonus for every pupil passing the certificate examination.

19. That the departmental certificate examinations for teachers be open to all candidates, wherever prepared.

20. That teachers in schools for general education be encouraged by special rewards to prepare pupils for examinations for teachers' certificates, and that girls be encouraged by the offer of prizes to qualify for such certificates.

21. That liberal inducements be offered to the wives of schoolmasters to qualify as teachers, and that in suitable cases widows be trained as schoolmistresses, care being taken to provide them with sufficient protection in the places where they are to be employed as teachers.

22. That, in Districts where European or Eurasian young women are required as teachers in native schools, special encouragement be given to them to qualify in a vernacular language.

23. That grants for zanana teaching be recognised as a proper charge on public funds, and be given under rules which will enable the agencies engaged in that work to obtain substantial aid for such secular teaching as may be tested by an inspectress, or other female agency.

24. That associations for the promotion of female education, by examinations or otherwise, be recognised by the Department, and encouraged by grants under suitable conditions.

25. That female inspecting agency be regarded as essential to the full development of female education, and be more largely employed than hitherto.

26. That an alternative examination in subjects suitable for girls be established, corresponding in standard to the Matriculation examination, but having no relation to any existing University course.

27. That endeavours be made to secure the services of native gentlemen interested in female education on committees for the supervision of girls schools, and that European and native ladies also be invited to assist such committees.

CHAPTER XL

LEGISLATION,

645. Educational Legislation in general—The history of legislation not originated by the ruling power is generally the history of the gradual growth of custom or popular sentiment into a force of such validity as to be the warrant for impressing the beliefs of many upon the whole community concerned. The growth of this consensus in the matter of State interference in education has in all countries been very slow. In England it is quite recent; and is in a great degree owing to the pressure of Continental example, and to the necessity of enabling the population of Great Britain to maintain a fair place in the competition of trade and material prosperity. In the East, although learning and learned castes have been recognised and fostered by Emperors and rulers, especially in Hindu or Buddhist communities, in connection with religious observances or courtly requirements, the idea of popular education of the modern or progressive type, either as a right or as a means of elevation or advancement, or as a source of wealth, is altogether new. Hence, before stating our Recommendations in favour of educational legislation for India, we have considered the origin and present state of such laws as have been passed with the same object in other countries. We have carefully considered the educational legislation in Great Britain and her colonies, in Europe, and in the United States, but we have not thought it necessary to lengthen our Report by the recapitulation of information which is fully available elsewhere. We observe that, however those systems of education may vary in detail or in the extent of Government interference or control, there is one point common to them all, in that they are all based on law or on ordinance equivalent to law. As regards the German system, which is perhaps the most completely organised, we are glad to record our obligation to a valuable paper drawn up by Lord Amphill and forwarded to us by the English Foreign Office.

646. Educational Legislation in India—No Education Act has yet been attempted by the Government of India; but provisions on the subject have been introduced into enactments applicable to various Provinces, principally in connection with rural or municipal funds and with minors and wards. The only enactment applicable to the whole of British India and bearing directly on education is the English Act of Parliament 53, Geo. III, cap. 155, passed at the renewal of the Charter in 1813. Section 42 of this Act invested the Board of Commissioners with full power and authority to superintend, direct, and control all educational institutions established by the Company, in the same manner as other matters connected with the Government and the revenues of the Indian territories. Section 43 empowered the Governor-General in Council to direct that at least one lakh of rupees a year, out of the surplus revenue, “ shall be set apart and applied to the revival and improvement of literature and the “ encouragement of the learned natives of India, and for the introduction and “ promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British “ territories in India.^{5*} This section further provided that the educational institutions to be founded under the Act should be regulated by the Governor-General in Council, subject to the control of the Board of Commissioners, but that appointments to educational offices should be made by the Local Governments.

The education of minors and wards has been provided for by legislative enactments applicable to all Provinces. But such provision has been necessarily of a special character and has little bearing upon any measure designed for the extension or improvement of popular education.

647. Measures affecting Rural Districts: North-Western Provinces.

Legislative provisions as to education in connection with rural or municipal funds are to be found in various provincial enactments, and will be briefly noticed in the order of their occurrence. The plan of supplementing imperial grants by local taxation to promote rural education appears to have been first adopted in the North-Western Provinces about 1851, in pursuance of the large scheme of elementary education for the masses initiated by the Lieutenant-Governor, Mr. Thomason, some six years previously. In order to provide funds for the scheme, a local rate on the land was introduced into certain Districts, with the concurrence of the land-owners, in the shape of a cess of one per cent, on the Government revenue demand, and was so arranged that the contribution was shared equally between the Government and the cess-payers, in view of the establishment of the required system of schools for primary vernacular education. This was the origin of the halkabandi or primary village schools which now cover this Province under a system which has extended even to its four permanently-settled Districts, where the land* holders agreed in 1863 to pay the half per cent, cess on the understanding that the other half should be contributed by Government. The cess was merged by Act XVIII of 1871 into a wider measure intended to provide for the levy and expenditure of local funds for local purposes including education. As before, the rate was on the land, but formed a clear addition to the Government demand. Partly of the Act lays down rules for the "manner in which the rates are to be expended;" and section 9 provides that "the proceeds of all rates levied under this Act shall be carried to the credit of a general provincial fund.*" Section 10 of the Act provides that the Local Government "shall from time to time allot from such fund an amount to be applied" in each District for expenditure on all or any of* certain purposes specified in various clauses of that section. Among such purposes, clause (c) of the section includes "the construction and the repair of school-houses, the maintenance and inspection of schools, the training of teachers, and the establishment of scholarships." The Act was amended by Act VII of 1877, and was finally repealed by Act III of 1878, in which, however* the provisions above referred to were maintained [section n₃ clause (c) (3).] Similarly in Oudh a school cess of one per cent, on the land revenue is levied under the Oudh Local Rates Act IV of 1878, in which provision has been made for the expenditure of a portion of the local fund on the purposes specified in the similar case in the North-Western Provinces [section i i, clause (o) (2).]

Madras.—The first enactment of a similar character passed in the Madras Presidency was Act VI of 1863, afterwards merged in the Madras Local Funds Act IV of 1871. The object of the former Act was two-fold,—(1) to give legal sanction to the collection of a cess for education, which had been voluntarily imposed by the people upon themselves in the Godavari District for the establishment of primary schools; and (2) to furnish the inhabitants of towns and villages -with the means of raising permanent funds for the establishment or improvement of schools. The Act was, however, found ill adapted to rural communities, and its failure was commented on by the Government of India in 1868. The Madras Government concluded that if adequate mass education was to be provided, a compulsory rate was required; but instead of having a special tax for education it was resolved to raise a single local rate for local

objects generally, including popular education. Hence the measure of 1871; section 3 of which empowers the Governor in Council to declare any area to be a local fund circle. Under section 4 a local fund board is to be appointed to administer local funds, and the board is to consist of three or more non-official members and an equal or smaller number of official members including the Collector, who is to be appointed *ex-officio* president of the board (section 5), whilst any member may be appointed vice-president (section 6). By section 23 the entire executive power of the board is vested in the president, but by section 33 the Government has reserved to itself the power of appointing local committees to act in subordination to the board in the management of schools, &c. Under section 36, local funds are to be raised by the imposition of local rates and taxes; and the section also authorises the levy of a house-tax, specially intended for educational purposes, subject to the proviso that the tax shall not be imposed except in villages or groups of villages, or townships, in " which a school supported by a Government grant-in-aid already exists, or in " which the inhabitants are prepared to establish a school under such rules as " may at the time be in force in respect of educational grants-in-aid, or in which " the Government shall determine to establish a school/⁵ The house-tax, however, was subsequently found to be very unpopular, and was held in abeyance from 1873-74, when a special grant was assigned to make up for the consequent deficiency in the funds. The appropriation of the funds raised under the Act is regulated by section 26, which provides that among the purposes to which the funds should be applied shall be " the diffusion of education, and " with this object in view, the construction and repair of school-houses, the maintenance of schools either wholly or by means of grants-in-aid, the inspection " of schools and the training of teachers."

Bombay and Sind.—The first step in behalf of primary education in rural districts in Bombay was taken in 1863, when a cess, similar in principle to that first started in the North-Western Provinces, of one anna in the rupee, or 6\ per cent, on the land and miscellaneous revenue, jagir and alienated lands included, was sanctioned by the Bombay Government and carried into general effect in the following year. One-third of the proceeds of this cess was assigned to primary education and thus provided a fund upon which a large and defined policy could be based. The cess continued to be levied by general consent and without legislation until 1869, when it was legalised by the Bombay Local Funds Act, III of that year, which provided funds for local objects including education, and which constituted local committees for the due administration of such funds. Section 9 of the Act requires the Collector of each District to place the net proceeds of the cess to the credit of the District local fund; and such proceeds, with any further assignment made to the fund, are to be expended on the objects specified in the Act " and on no others." Into Sind a cess of the same character had previously been introduced in 1861, and was afterwards legalised by Bombay Act VIII of 1865, which also confirmed the existing assessments of the same class on jagir and other alienated lands. But here, half of the cess was assigned for local purposes in which education had only a share of at first one-sixth, afterwards raised to one-third of the proceeds of the rate. The progress of cess funds and cess schools in Bombay and Sind under the Acts above cited has been detailed in Chapter IV.

Bengal.—In Bengal, as already explained, no legislative provision has yet been made for raising local funds for the purpose of education in rural districts* although the Secretary of State in 1870 approved the principle that, "aselsewhere so in Bengal* the expenditure required for the education of the

“ people ought to be mainly defrayed out of local resources.” The measure was however to be attempted “ with great caution, because such an application “ of the rates was one which the present condition of the people may render “ them least able to appreciate.”

Punjab.—In the Punjab the levy of a rate on land for primary education was imitated from the North-West, and soon spread over the Province. On the appointment of a Director of Public Instruction in 1856, when the Department was first organised, it was thought desirable that the educational cess should be extended to the whole Province, and an order was issued that where the settlement had not been completed, one per cent, on the land revenue should be levied for the maintenance of village schools; in other cases, District officers were to endeavour to induce the people voluntarily to subscribe to the cess. In 1857, Mr. Arnold, the first Director, was able to report that the cess was then levied throughout the greater portion of the Punjab. Since that date it has become general, but although embodied in the settlement *agrArntvnrfr*, does not as yet rest on any express provision of the legislature, and hence its conditions still await legal sanction. The Punjab Local Rates Act XX of 1871 was passed with the object, among others, of authorising the levy and expenditure of local funds on the construction and repair of school-houses, the maintenance and inspection of schools, the training of teachers, and the establishment of scholarships. This Act was repealed by Act V of 1878 which maintains the former provisions, subject to a prior appropriation for *fc-minA* relief. Section 4 renders all land “ liable to the payment of such rates as the “ Lieutenant-Governor from time to time may direct, not exceeding eight pies “ for every rupee of its annual value.” By section 6, the proceeds of all rates imposed under the Act are carried to the credit of the Local Government, and section 7 authorises the Lieutenant-Governor, after appropriating one-fourth of the total proceeds of the rates for famine purposes, to allot such sums as he thinks fit to be applied for expenditure on certain local purposes, among which are enumerated “ the construction and repair of school-houses, the main- “ tenance and inspection of schools, the training of teachers, and the establish* “ meat of scholarships” (section 7, clause 2). Sectionn provides that “the “Lieutenant-Governor shall appoint, in each District, a committee, consistingof “ not less than six persons, for the purpose of determining how the amount “allotted under section 7 shall be applied, and of supervising and controlling “ such amount; provided that not less than one-third of the members of such “committee shall be persons not in the service of Government, and owning or “ occupying land in the District, or residing therein.”

Central Provinces.—Prior to the passing of the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act I of 1883, which will be described below, no legislation had taken place with reference to the expenditure of local rates on rural schools and education. But, as in the Punjab, the scheme initiated in the North-Western Provinces had been adopted as the foundation of the village school system in the Sagar and Narbada territories since incorporated into the Central Provinces, where the one per cent, cess, subsequently raised to two per cent., was levied under settlement agreements made with the landholders, the percentage being deducted from the total gross receipts before the Government demand is fixed. Thus the cess is paid half by the State and -hidf by the landholders. The cess has been placed on a legal basis by Act III of 1883, which provides for the formation of local administrative areas, and the constitution of local boards and district councils. Section 3 defines the matters to be administered by these local bodies; and “the management, “ *ma.fnt.ang.'nAft* and visiting of schools, ... and the construction and repair

“ of all buildings connected with these institutions, ” are expressly placed under the control and administration of the District council and local boards. Section 16 provides that “ every District council, and every local board as the “ agent of, and subject to the control of, its District council, may from time “ to time appoint school committees for the several schools under its control “ and administration, and shall, as far as may be practicable, conduct the “ management of any school for which such a committee has been appointed “ through that committee.”

Assam.—In 1874 Assam was separated from Bengal. In November 1879, the Assam Regulation III of that year was passed as the Assam Local Rates Regulation. Under section 3, all land is declared liable to the payment of such rates, in addition to the land revenue and local cesses, if any, assessed thereon, as the Chief Commissioner from time to time directs, not exceeding one anna four pies for every rupee of the annual value of such land. The proceeds of all such rates are to be carried (section 2) to the credit of a general provincial fund. From this fund the Chief Commissioner may appropriate a certain amount for famine purposes and for works of provincial utility, with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council; and subject to such appropriation he is required to allot from time to time such amount as he thinks fit “ for the construction and repair of school-houses, the maintenance “ and inspection of schools, the training of teachers, and the establishment of “ scholarships/⁵ Any unexpended portion of the allotment may be re-allotted in the following year, or otherwise expended for the benefit of the Province at the discretion of the Chief Commissioner. The Regulation creates District committees and branch committees for the supervision, control and expenditure of the allotment under rules to be laid down by the Chief Commissioner. Such rules have accordingly been published with the result of placing the supervision and control of primary education in the hands of the District committees and their delegated.

Coorg and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts.—In these minor Provinces educational rates exist. In Coorg, there is a plough tax of four or three annas per plough, according to the quality of the land concerned. This tax was sanctioned in 1872 and is taken from all except coffee lands, under a process of collection in which it was reported in 1877 that, although the rate was, as a rule, readily and freely paid “ the element of coercion is not wholly absent.” In 1877 it was proposed to commute the tax into a regular cess of one anna in the rupee of assessment on all except coffee lands; but the proposal was negatived. In Berar also an educational cess of one per cent, on the land revenue was introduced in 1867-68, to provide funds for the extension of primary education, and is still in force. As, however, in neither Province is there any legal basis for either of these rates no further notice of them is needed in this Chapter.

648. Measures affecting Municipalities.—In regard to the levy or appropriation of municipal funds for the purposes of education, legislative provisions of a permissive character are to be found in most of the enactments now applicable to the various Provinces of India. In the earlier Acts of the Supreme Council, X of 1842 and XXVI of 1850, though provision was made for the public health and convenience in towns and for improvements generally, there is no express mention of education. These measures have, however, been superseded by special enactments intended for the different Provinces and containing direct reference to education as will be shown below.

Madras.—The Madras Town Improvement Act III of 1871 aimed

at providing for towns what the Madras Local Funds Act IV of 1871 (to which reference has already been made in connection with local funds) provided for rural districts. Sections 7 to 21 provide for the establishment of municipal commissions and the constitution of municipal funds; and section 29, which regulates the appropriation of funds raised under the Act, provides that among the purposes on which the funds may be expended are^{cc} the diffusion “of education, and, with this view, the construction and repair of school-houses, the establishment and maintenance of schools, either wholly or by means of grants-in-aid, the inspection of schools and the training of teachers.”

The municipal affairs of the city of Madras are regulated by Madras Act V of 1878 which contains a provision for the appropriation of funds for the elementary instruction of the poor.

Bombay and Sind.—In Bombay, municipalities were first empowered by the imperial Act XXVI of 1850 to raise funds for local purposes and were afterwards empowered by Bombay Act II of 1862 to assign funds for the support of schools within municipal limits. But the municipal contributions for the whole Presidency were at first insignificant; in 1864 they only amounted to about Rs. 20,000. The Act of 1862 was afterwards merged into the far wider Act VI of 1873, the mofussil municipalities Act, which enlarged the provisions of the former Act in respect of education. The Act of 1873 was passed for the better management of municipal affairs in the mofussil. The Act constitutes city and town municipalities, by order of the Local Government, on the basis of the population in any municipal district. Section 24 of the Act enumerates the purposes to which the municipal funds shall be applicable. Public Instruction is expressly mentioned as one of those to which the municipal funds may be applied, and the manner of applying funds to education is described to be, “(1) defraying such portion of the cost of the construction, support and maintenance of any school, college, university, or other institution of learning as the municipality may think fit; (2) defraying such portion of the cost of the construction, support and maintenance of any public library and museum as the municipality may think fit.”^{5*} The Bombay Act of 1873 was finally introduced into Sind, with a few minor modifications not affecting education, by the local Act I of 1879.

The municipal affairs of the City of Bombay are regulated by Bombay Acts III of 1872 and IV and VI of 1878, which contain a provision for the appropriation of funds towards defraying such portion of the cost of public instruction as the Corporation may think fit, as also towards the erection and maintenance of libraries and museums.

Bengal.—The Bengal Municipal Consolidation Act V of 1876 repealed so much of the Imperial Act of 1850 as affected the Provinces subject to the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, as also the previous local enactments on the same subject, of which the most important were those of 1864, 1868 and 1873. The Act provides for the creation and constitution of municipalities in the mofussil of that Province, and regulates the imposition of municipal taxes and the disbursement of the municipal fund so raised. The Act constitutes first and second class municipalities, unions and stations, on the basis of the resident population and its occupation in other than agricultural pursuits. Section 61 enumerates the purposes to which municipal funds may be applied; and among such purposes are included “the construction and repair of school-houses, and the establishment and maintenance of schools either wholly or by means of grants-in-aid.”

The municipal affairs of the City of Calcutta are regulated by the

Calcutta Municipal Consolidation Act IV of 1876, which however does not contain the same express provision for education as is found in the analogous Bombay and Madras Acts.

North-Western Provinces and Oudh.—In the North-Western Provinces the Municipalities Act XV of 1873 empowers the Local Government to extend the Act to any town and to appoint the members of the municipal committee or to direct their being chosen by election. Section 32 of the Act lays down the duties and powers of municipal committees, and the last clause of the section provides that “ the committee may also make provision “ by the establishment of new schools or the aiding of already existing schools, ^c or otherwise, for the promotion of education in their municipalities.” Oudh was amalgamated with the North-Western Provinces in 1877, and its municipalities are now regulated by the same Act.

Punjab.—Similar provisions are to be found in the Punjab municipal Act IV of 1873, and in the penultimate clause of section 11 of the Act, the same language has been employed by the legislature as in the last clause of section 32 of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh Municipalities Act already cited.

Central Provinces.—The Central Provinces Municipal Act XI of 1873 also contains similar provisions in regard to the duties and powers of municipal committees in connection with schools and the promotion of education. In this Province legislative effect has already been given (by Act III of 1883) to the Home Department Resolution of May 1882 upon local self-government, which has an important bearing on education. The provisions of this Act, so far as education is concerned, may be briefly explained. The Act provides for the arrangement of villages into circles and of the circles into groups. In each group a Local Board is established, but on the understanding that any municipality or military cantonment situated within such circle is to be separately treated; similarly each District has its own council having authority over the entire District, excluding any municipality or military cantonment. These two administrative bodies, the Local Boards and District councils, the former in subordination to the latter, will superintend and control the management, maintenance and inspection of the schools, supported or aided by local funds, including the construction and repair of the school buildings (section 9, b)> Either board or council may appoint school committees for each such school within the local area concerned, and such committees shall manage the said schools in subordination to the appointing authority. As regards finance, each District is to have its District fund which will include, among other items, all rates levied in accordance with settlement records in that District for the maintenance of roads and schools. To this fund are debitable the charges for school Inspectors and Normal school teachers, appointed and controlled by Government and employed in such Districts; as also the charges for scholarships, prizes and the like, for all such schools within the said area, provided that the amount expended on primary education from the District fund in any financial year shall not be less than the estimated net proceeds for that year of the rates levied in the District for the maintenance of schools, in accordance with the settlement records. Provision is further made for the annual audit, inspection and publication of the District accounts. Lastly, the Act provides that the District officer shall in all respects retain effectual supervision and control, subject to the regular routine of official subordination, and shall also have extraordinary powers in cases of emergency. It would be premature now to express any opinion on the provisions of the Act as above abstracted; but

it is obvious that while education forms an important part of the subjects thus touched by legislation, it is not as yet exhaustively treated, and hence, if educational progress is to be general and uniform in principle, it seems necessary to complete what has been attempted, for which purpose either a separate Act will be needed or additional provisions in the existing Act.

Assam.—The Assam municipalities are constituted under Bengal Act V of 1876, the main provisions of which have already been summarised.

Coorg.—Municipalities in Coorg are regulated by Act XVIII of 1864, modified by Act XXII of 1865, which originally applied only to Lucknow, but was extended by the Government of India to Coorg.

649. Review of Evidence in regard to legislation—Having briefly reviewed the sections of existing enactments bearing on education, we now consider such suggestions as have been made for either codifying or improving the present law. While the evidence collected by the Commission in the various Provinces of India proves that, in matters of detail, it will be necessary to adjust general principles to varying local circumstances, yet there is a remarkable concurrence of testimony on the main issue as to the expediency of legislation for the purposes of finance and administration. We shall consider these suggestions in the order of the Provinces; and for greater detail we refer to the Chapter on Primary Education, in which the functions and relations of municipal and rural boards have been considered. We would only premise that few of the witnesses were specially consulted as to the need for legislation, and therefore that the testimony of those who have of their own accord stated their views is of peculiar value.

Madras.—In Madras, the necessity is recognised for compelling municipalities to provide adequate funds for primary education. Nine witnesses agree that the present law, which is permissive, has failed to secure for education its proper share of municipal income. They are unanimous in holding that a definite share of this income should be spent on education; but while some think that primary education only should be a charge on the town school fund, others would include provision for secondary education also within the scope of municipal liabilities. One witness suggests that from five to seven per cent, of municipal income should be assigned to education, while others are not prepared with a specific proposal as to the share to be assigned. It is also suggested that unexpended balances at the end of the year should lapse to the school fund. In the same spirit* several witnesses advocate the assignment to rural primary education of a specific share of local rates, which some would fix at one-third and others at a minimum of one-sixth. But the general opinion is that a definite allotment must be fixed, or else the school fund will suffer in competition with the many other demands on the general local fund of the District. While there is a general consensus that the financial control of the boards, whether municipal or rural, should be strengthened by the creation of a District school fund, opinions differ as to the degree of administrative control which should be reserved by Government. One witness would go so far as to insist on the expenditure of the fund at the discretion of the Inspector; but the general opinion is that the Department should settle the course of studies and prescribe the grant-in-aid rules, leaving the board free play and discretion in other matters, subject to the necessity of treating private enterprise with fairness and uniformity. It is also suggested by more than one witness that the appointment of properly qualified or certificated teachers should be made compulsory. For the protection of private enterprise, five

witnesses advocate legislation. One considers that in order to prevent arbitrary action by the Department, the grant-in-aid regulations should be embodied in an Act; a second desires a safeguard against the refusal of committees to make proper provision for education; while the rest consider that whether against the Department or against the boards, the protection and encouragement of private enterprise will never be adequately guaranteed unless the legislature prescribes the conditions of assistance. In addition to these three objects of legislation, *viz.*, the provision of funds, the establishment of boards vested with adequate control, and the protection of private enterprise, there are a few details which in the opinion of certain Madras witnesses require legislation, such as the desirability of giving a legal status to bodies or individuals who endow colleges; the provision of a pension fund for teachers in private schools, and the registration of teachers; the application to the purposes of education of any unappropriated charity funds; and the maintenance of State colleges and high schools.

Bombay—In Bombay, the evidence bearing on the necessity for legislation deals with four main subjects—the obligations of municipal committees; the functions of Local Boards; the protection of private enterprise; and the security of the rights of depressed classes of the community. But in addition to these chief proposals there are three others which demand a passing notice. One witness advocates compulsory primary education for the city of Bombay. Another recommends a limitation on the extension of higher education by State agency, suggesting at the same time that a minimum should be prescribed for each District. A third condemns the operation of the Indian factories Act of 1881, whereby children employed in the mills are kept at work continuously from sunrise to sunset, and urges the necessity of providing instruction for them during a part of the day. On the broader issues there is much similarity between the evidence tendered in Bombay and in Madras. It has been generally recommended that municipalities should be compelled to provide a school fund for primary education, on the ground that it cannot be fair to make the cost of educating children in towns a charge against the rural community. A re-distribution of the burden of taxation is suggested in order that municipalities may bear their proper share* since a permissive law has been proved by experience to be inoperative. On the understanding that the control of primary education, whether aided or wholly maintained at the cost of local rates, will henceforth devolve on boards, some witnesses have advocated legal protection for missionary and other bodies engaged in the work of education. Others have expressed a fear that the lower castes and depressed classes of the community will be debarred from the benefits of education unless the principle of the admission of all classes of society, without distinction of caste or creed, be emphatically affirmed by the legislature. On this subject the Bevd. Mr. Hume has given valuable evidence. Lastly, legislation is advocated not merely with a view to secure the rights of private enterprise and of depressed classes, but also to secure the boards against arbitrary interference with their financial and administrative control. It is recognised that while the State, through its Education Department, must keep a watch over the action of the boards, it is equally desirable that the law should define the rights as well as the duties of the controlling bodies. By such means it is hoped that the maximum of freedom and independence will be left to the boards, without the risk either of any serious departure from the policy laid down in the educational Despatches or of any infringement of the just claims of minorities.

Bengal—In Bengal, beyond an expression of opinion that municipalities should be compelled to provide funds more liberally and systematically than

hitherto for primary education, no specific suggestions have been made on the subject of legislation. As already remarked, there exists at present in that part of India no direct connection between local rates and primary education. The experience, therefore, gained in other parts of India where it is proposed to define by legislation the rights and duties of local boards, does not at present apply to Bengal; and the omission of any suggestion on the subject need occasion no surprise.

North-Western Provinces and Oudh.—The question of legislation does not appear to have occurred to the majority of the witnesses in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh; but various suggestions have been made which would require the support of law. One witness would like to see a central board of education created in order to supervise local and municipal boards entrusted with education. The Hon'ble Sayyid Ahmad, Khan Bahadur, advocates the appointment of a committee charged with the entire administration of education in all vernacular schools of all grades under the guidance of an educational Code. As to the duties of municipalities, opinions differ. The Collector of Gorakhpur deprecates the imposition on municipal boards of any rule or law prescribing a fixed assignment of their revenue to education. The same witness is opposed to entrusting such town-boards with any powers over aided middle class institutions. On the other hand, a Native witness speaks of the anomaly of the rural community contributing to the cost of their schools whilst the towns contribute nothing. He therefore advocates the levy of a compulsory tax on all families residing in towns with a population of 20,000. The tax, he urges, should be adjusted by the people themselves, and should constitute a school fund. On the whole, however, there are but few references to legislation in any form in the evidence from the North-Western Provinces; though the witnesses agree for the most part in suggesting the transfer of larger powers of control to local bodies.

Punjab.—In the Punjab, there are references to the need for municipal contributions and to the advantage of connecting control over primary and in some cases secondary education with the general scheme for the extension of local self-government. But there are no specific proposals for legislative action. Dr. Leitner advocates the creation of local committees, with village panchayats subordinate to them, acting under the supervision of a board of education. He remarks that—“ if necessary, provision can be made to secure the expenditure in “ each city of a certain proportion of municipal income upon education.” Both he and other witnesses contemplate an educational Code; but it is not clear whether the Code is to be sanctioned by law.

Central Provinces.—In the Central Provinces, certain witnesses advocated the recognition of the official status of the village committees as the local managers of cess schools. Recent legislation in providing for the scheme of self-government in the Central Provinces has recognised this principle; and school committees have been made subject to the local boards. The legislature has also provided a remedy against a possible abuse by declaring that the expenditure on primary education in each District shall not fall short of the estimated net proceeds of the rates levied in the District for the maintenance of such schools.

650. Conclusions from this Review.—Thus in *most* Provinces *some* attempt at educational legislation, more or less desultory, has been made. In Bengal alone ha-8 legislation been excluded from rural districts and restricted to municipalities. We are of opinion that if any class of education is to be treated at all by legislation, it should be treated thoroughly; that it is not sufficient to constitute agencies with merely discretionary powers, or dealing with funds,

the appropriation of which to educational purposes is beyond their control; that all these scattered provisions, including such suggestions of the witnesses as are approved by the Local Governments concerned, should be brought into one connected and complete system for each Province, not only in view of securing the strict application of funds to the purposes for which they are levied, but as an authoritative declaration of policy as to which there is at present much uncertainty and consequent want of steady and uniform progress. Care must be taken that advantages intended for the poorer and labouring classes be not monopolised by the higher classes. Local bodies should not be allowed to aid higher schools at the expense of funds raised for or assigned to primary schools; they should be required to levy adequate fees in all schools under their control; they should not be allowed to stint primary schools in such a way as to tend to inefficiency. Above all, they should give fair play to private enterprise, and impartially administer, according to the grant-in-aid rules, the funds entrusted to them. Adequate provision should be made for all castes and classes of the community in proportion to the funds available. We think that any law which deals with the levy of funds should also deal more precisely than at present with their appropriation; that it should no longer be possible for Government policy to vary with successive incumbents of high office; that there should be a recognised check to any appropriation to one purpose of funds primarily raised for another; in short, that there should be some firmer, more uniform, and better understood basis of educational policy than at present exists. One point demands special notice. From our review of the existing law it appears that in Bombay a minimum share of local fund income is guaranteed by statutory rule for primary education, which share, with the Provincial assignment to the same purpose, is safe from appropriation to other objects, and if unspent at the end of the year does not lapse either to the general local fund or to Provincial balances. On the other hand in Northern India there is no such guarantee against appropriation to other objects, or, in the case of unspent balances, against lapse to Provincial revenues. Hence in Bombay, primary education has a fund of its own, a distinct revenue, and clear financial rights; while in Northern India, both the allotment in the first instance and the unspent balance are dependent on the local administration for the time being. We are of opinion that the Bombay system in this respect should be uniformly adopted. Such uniformity and the other provisions mentioned above can only be secured by legislation. This conclusion is strengthened by the fact that at present our educational administration is conducted on a dual system of management by the Department and by local committees; and though we look forward to the gradual supersession of departmental schools, at first in the lower grades by aided or board schools, and afterwards in the higher grades by aided schools, we are aware that this process must be gradual, and that in the interval some impartial and secure basis of common action, such as legislation alone will provide, should be afforded.

651. Basis of the Recommendations of the Commission—The first question connected with legislation that came before the Commission was whether any further and more specific enactment was expedient. This was decided in the affirmative at a very early stage of our proceedings, and was affirmed in the Recommendation already stated in Chapter IV to this effect:—*that an attempt be made to secure the fullest possible provision for and extension of primary education by legislation suited to the circumstances of each Province** The grounds of this decision were briefly as follows: (i) Hitherto the State has mainly relied for the extension of education upon departmental effort or upon voluntary effort. But the former is obviously limited by financial considerations and is therefore inadequate to the need, while it moreover tends

to discourage local effort and self-reliance. The latter is necessarily partial and uncertain, and is least likely to be forthcoming where it is most wanted. What is now required seems to be some measure that will not only meet present necessities in each Province but be capable of expansion with future necessities. It is not thereby intended that any one large measure should regulate the details of education throughout all India, On the contrary, the Recommendation cited is carefully guarded in its reference to the circumstances of each Province. But in only three Provinces is there any local legislative Council, and hence for each of the other Provinces some one or more Acts will be required from the Supreme Government. In the case of all Provinces alike it is right that the central authority, being most conversant with principles, should supply principles while the local authorities should embody those principles in Acts suited to the circumstances of each Province. A declaration of general principles by the Supreme Council will be no bar to the exercise of free scope and discretion by local authorities in matters of detail; still less will one Province be bound by provisions primarily designed for another. In this way it is hoped that in course of time, by a process of gradual expansion on well considered lines, each Province may be furnished with sufficient and efficient primary schools. On the equally important question whether executive orders would not ensure the desired end without legislation, it was argued that the history and statistics given in our Report show that executive orders of clear import and general application, issued from 1854 to the present time, have failed more or less in all Provinces to ensure uniform attention to broad principles prescribed for general guidance. If such general or partial failure occurred during 16 years of purely centralised control from 1854 to 1870 and during 12 years from 1870 to the present day of modified and relaxed control, still greater failure and want of consistent progress may be expected as further decentralisation advances, especially if primary education be made one of the objects to which local self-government is to be directed. Moreover, as has been shown above, although outside opinions are divided as to the scope and direction of legislation, there is a general consensus, among those witnesses who have touched on the subject at all, that some more final and authoritative policy than the present is urgently needed. (7) In all countries where education has been most successful, that is, most national, it has been based on law or ordinance which has laid down the broad outlines of a general policy. Even in England where there is so much jealousy of any central action that can be avoided, it was never advanced, in the prolonged discussions which resulted in the Acts passed between 1870 and 1880, that if a national and adequate system of primary education was at last to be established, it could be established otherwise than by legislation. (3) Legislation is the only way in which all or any of the Recommendations of the Commission, after approval by Government, can be made to live and last.

652. Arguments of the minority of the Commission.—It has already been noticed that the Recommendation cited from Chapter IV is limited in its scope to primary education. This Recommendation was passed by a majority of 14 to 3, and may be accepted as the almost unanimous conviction of the Commission that it is desirable to give to primary education that uniformity and permanence which law alone can supply, But it was not until a later stage in our proceedings that the extension of the scope of proposed legislation to W education was considered. At that stage, after much discussion, the Recommendations of the Commission, as they now stand in favour of a larger scheme, were carried by a narrow majority. The arguments of the minority who approved of limiting legislation for the present at all events to primary education were as follows: (1) The preparation of any specific Act

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dealing with the whole subject, even of primary education, would be a matter of extreme difficulty and absolute novelty in India, and therefore should be undertaken tentatively and with caution. Were the Commission to assent to a proposal so limited, a measure might probably be elaborated in such detail as at least to combine existing executive orders of principle, and so to form a basis capable of ready adaptation by the Local Government concerned to the circumstances of each Province. Successful legislation in the matter of primary education might be a proper prelude to extended legislation affecting higher education; but any failure in a large measure might discredit the whole scheme, so that the plea of extending the project would probably be the best method of opposing it. (2) The basis of all legislation is necessity, or expediency so strong as for practical purposes to be equivalent to necessity. But the relation of the State to the community in the matter of primary education differs from that in higher education. In the former, the State must do most where there is least local effort; in the latter the converse is the case* In the former, State action, more or less extended according to ability and available funds, has been held and declared to be necessary and on a par with the maintenance of order or the repression of crime. In the latter, State action, however desirable, is not necessary or in the same sense and to the same extent expedient. (3) Whatever views may be held as to the relative claims of primary and higher education upon State aid and funds, it must be admitted that the Provincial grant has not as yet in any Province been, in proportion to the need, so largely available for primary as for higher education. On the contrary, authority might be adduced to show that at least in one Province, the Punjab, primary education was declared to be a matter of only local concern, Provincial funds being necessarily concentrated on the smaller and more practicable task of providing higher education for the comparatively few who require it. This, in the opinion of the minority, certainly was the traditional and reiterated view of the authorities in Bengal which gave so strong and decided a bias to their educational policy until 1868. But it was one main object of the Despatches of 1854 and 1859, as explained in the Despatch of 24th December 1863, and still more clearly in that of 25th April 1864, that "as far as possible," the revenues of the State are to be directed to the great mass of the people, who certainly only require at most primary education. This view is confirmed by the Despatch of 26th May 1870, which pronounced its approval of the principle that Government expenditure should be "mainly devoted" to elementary education for the masses of the people. The most important declaration of the views of the Government of India on the need and claims of primary education will be found in the letter to the Government of Bengal of the 25th April 1868, already cited in Chapter IV, which, on the above grounds, insisted on more being done than heretofore for the education of the masses. Lastly, in the orders constituting our Commission, the extension of elementary education for the masses was declared to be the main object to which our enquiries were to be directed. Hence there seemed to be authority from both the Home and Supreme Governments that more should be done than heretofore for primary education; and the minority held that while this object could only be uniformly and satisfactorily secured by legislation there was no present warrant to go farther. (4) Again, on financial grounds, it was argued that funds for primary education in every Province of India, except Bengal, are chiefly derived from local taxation. If the administration of this income is to be entrusted to numerous local bodies, some control is required for the sake of uniform administration; and such control will best be secured by an Act. If the control be left to discretion, it will vary both in character and in force; thus involv-

ing not only different policies, but degrees of interference varying probably with the controlling officer for the time being. On the other hand, the funds for secondary and higher education will in most Provinces still be administered by a central Department under Government, which may be unwilling to tie its own hands, as there is less necessity for limiting a control which is centralised and not diffused over numerous small agencies.* Moreover, the local fund itself is or may become guaranteed by existing law or rule for expenditure on primary education as a permanent fund not capable of reduction in times of financial pressure. With a permanent fund to work on, legislation can define and prescribe the methods of expenditure. But the fund for higher education is liable to be affected by financial considerations which cannot be foreseen. Legislation for the administration of funds cannot be more secure than the foundation of the funds themselves. Granted that the local fund is a fixed quantity, and that it is not capable of diversion without breach of faith from primary education, there seem peculiar reasons for giving to the administration of this fund the strength of legal support. (5) Again, the problems involved in legislating for primary education are comparatively simple; those involved in secondary education are very complex. For instance, a large portion of any Act for secondary education would necessarily deal with grants-in-aid. The Madras evidence shows that a few higher schools in that Province at one time saved a large surplus from grants fixed at a rate which, as the measure of self-support increased, came to exceed their requirements. It is one thing for the State to assist education, another thing for it to apply the public revenues to enrich one section of the educational field when there is so much destitution in another. It becomes necessary to adjust the scale of grants to the circumstances of each period as well as of each Province, and no Act could attempt to do that. If the law be too precise, it will defeat its object; if precision be not an object there is no call for legislation. (6) Lastly, the numerous boards will require legislation in order to define their rights and duties and the limits of their responsibility as trustees to Government for the public funds entrusted to them. Legislation is in this view necessary to protect the hoards as well as the public. There is also a third party, *viz.*, those who do not subscribe to the fund, but who, like the boards, are engaged in managing schools and whose claims to assistance it is desirable to define. There are complaints that a central Department has not always done justice to private agency, and such complaints will increase when new and numerous local bodies are entrusted with powers that may be used either in assisting private enterprise or in crushing it out. Against the exercise of such powers by the boards private enterprise will require the protection of law. (7) While several witnesses have advocated legislation for primary education, only one has recommended it for higher schools, for which the grant-in-aid rules have either actually sufficed or can be made to suffice by executive order without law; but the grant-in-aid system has been demonstrated to be unequal to the full extension of primary education, because voluntary effort fails where it is most needed. Hence not only on general considerations but also in view of actual experience in India, the minority urge the restriction of legislation, at all events at first, to primary education.

653* Arguments of the Majority of the Commission. On the other hand, the majority of the Commission, in support of the Recommendations as they now stand urged that if it be granted that separate legislation was necessary, it should cover the whole field of education. Some maintained that separate legislation was not necessary, because the local self-Government Bills would probably do all that is required. But if anything beyond this was at-

tempted, the majority agreed that legislation should not be confined to primary education. For instance, some legal validity should be given to the grant-in-aid Code, so that the action of the Department might be controlled, and aided institutions of every class protected from capricious interference with their grants. It was also thought desirable that the Director and the Inspecting officers of the Department should have a legal status and statutory powers, so as to define the extent and limits of their authority over aided and other institutions, their teachers and managers, points which were now frequently involved in doubt. It was further stated that in most countries of Europe, high education as well as lower was provided for by law or ordinance. For the promotion of higher education there was even greater need in in Western countries; without it in this country there was no possibility of either intellectual or material advancement, and for India it was not so much a luxury as a bare necessity. As to the assumption which had been made that State action in the matter of primary education was on a par with the maintenance of order or the repression of crime, it was contended that the protection of life and property was as old as society, while popular education was the growth of the present century only. Moreover, one object of Agialatinn would be to control the Department and prevent arbitrary action with reference not to one class of schools but to all*. Hence, for the Commission to declare that primary education was the only part worth legislating about, and that higher education might be left to take care of itself, would be injurious to the country and its progress, and would arouse grave and well-founded apprehension in the minds of the people, who looked to the Despatches of 1854 and 1859 as guaranteeing the continued support of the Government not only to primary but to higher education. The Commission had already declared that an attempt should be made to extend primary education by legislative means; and those who were in favour of thus limiting the scope of legislation explained one of their objects to be that, in case of financial pressure, any reduction might affect schools of the higher sort first. The wish of the majority, however, was that secondary as well as primary education should continue to receive the fostering care of the State. The relative claims of elementary and of advanced education were, and were likely to remain, an open question. But however great might be the need of legislating in favour of primary education, the Commission had declared by a large majority "that «while the strenuous efforts of the State should now be directed in a still «larger measure than heretofore to the improvement and extension of the elementary education of the masses, it is no less essential to the welfare of the «community that provision be made for the maintenance and development « of colleges and schools of the higher class.»¹ Even B, proposal to substitute the word "encouragement" for the word "maintenance" in the above declaration had been thrown out by a large majority. Further, the whole tenor of the debates that took place on the 14th and 21st of February, and on the and, 12th, and 13th of March 1863, showed clearly the mind of the majority of the Commission, and their determination that secondary education should not be sacrificed or subordinated to primary. It was no doubt right and proper to make strenuous efforts to improve and extend the elementary education of the masses; but the time might come when legislation would be required in an equal degree for the protection of secondary education; and the best way of providing against encroachments from any quarter was to deal with the whole question of legislation in a liberal and comprehensive spirit. Great stress had been laid by the minority on certain Despatches of the Secretary of State, received subsequently to those of 1854 and 1859. But the Despatches of the 24th December 1863 and the 35th April 1864, which had been quoted in support of the general principle that the resources of the State should be

mainly applied to the assistance of those who could not be expected to help themselves, went just as far as the earlier Despatches and no farther. The letter of the Government of India to the Government of Bengal, dated 25th April 1868, was not, it was urged, a published letter, nor had it been brought before the Commission, It formed part of a discussion which had been described, in the Bengal Provincial Report as "the cess-controversy between the Supreme and the Provincial Government." The issue of this controversy is given at length in paragraphs 107-109 of the Bengal Provincial Report. The Despatch of the 26th May 1870 was also an unpublished Despatch. One of its declared objects was to impress upon the Government of India the greatest caution in withdrawing from the support of colleges in Bengal; and it urged, among other reasons, the inability of the students to pay for their own education. It was therefore contended that some better authority than those quotations must be shown before the majority could accept a new interpretation of the only general educational Despatches, those of 1854 and 1859. The only interpretation of those Despatches which the Commission could accept was that to which it had come after lengthened discussion, and which was embodied in the first twelve paragraphs of Chapter VIII.

654. Recommendations.—While our Recommendations represent the almost unanimous conviction that some legislation is necessary for the proper control of primary education, they only afford an indication rather than line of the scope and character of the legislative action required. This must be decided by each Province for itself in consideration of its own circumstances. Moreover, the Recommendations reflect the conflict which we have detailed at length in justice to the prolonged discussion excited and to the minority who still hold that what is now recommended is in excess of present requirements. A glance at the Recommendations as they stand will show that they are divided into two groups. The first nine refer to all classes of institutions controlled or managed by municipal or rural boards. They require a school area or district to be defined by law and to be placed under a school board with defined powers and responsibilities in respect of all schools controlled or aided by it. The Act will declare what funds are to be administered by the boards and in what way, and how they are to be accounted for. These nine Recommendations are concerned with such education, whether primary or secondary, as is placed under the control of local boards; and so far as primary education is concerned the complement of the Recommendation originally adopted under the primary heading.* It will be noticed that the eighth Recommendation not only deals with such education as is placed under the control of school boards, but also provides for the yearly revision by Government of the existing supply of schools of every class placed under such boards, and for the increased supply, whether by the agency of the boards or otherwise, as the Government may direct, of any class of schools that may be found deficient. The ninth Recommendation was originally drawn up to form a part of those which follow it; but by the introduction of the words "by municipal and local boards" an addition which was earned only by the casting vote of the Chairman, it has on the one hand been brought into connection with the Recommendations preceding it, and, on the other, been rendered irreconcilable with the tenth Recommendation relating to matters with which local and municipal boards have no direct concern. The remaining Recommendations, forming the second group, embody the views of the majority in favour of the extension of legislation to higher education. These Recommendations contemplate legal sanction to a Code intended to regulate the internal organisation and

* That an attempt be made to secure the finest possible provision for, and extension of, primary education by legislation suited to the circumstances of each Province.

external relations of the Education Department, with power reserved to each Local Government to cancel and modify the provisions of the Code. A reference to the proceedings of the Commission will show that the leading or tenth Recommendation was carried by a very narrow majority, and that the Committee appointed to draw up the Commission's Report was instructed to bring the divergent views into the best coherence that could be agreed upon. The Committee have, however, thought it best to give the fullest representation of the conflicting views and to leave the authoritative decision on all points to Government. Our Recommendations are that:—

- (1)—the duties of Municipal and Local Boards in controlling or assisting schools under their supervision be regulated by local enactments suited to the circumstances of each Province :
- (2)—the area of any municipal or rural unit of local self-government that may now or hereafter exist be declared to be a school-district, and school-boards be established for the management and control of schools placed under their jurisdiction in each such district:
- (3) —the control of each school-board over all schools within the said school-district be subject to the following provisions :—
 - (a) that it be open to the Local Government to exclude any school, or any class of schools, other than schools of primary instruction for boys, from the control of such school-board;
 - (J) that any school which is situated in the said school-district, and which receives no assistance either from the board or the Department, continue, if the managers so desire it, to be independent of the control of the school-board;
 - (c) that the managers of any institution which receives aid either from the board or the Department continue to exercise in regard to such institution full powers of management, subject to such limitations as the Local Government may from time to time impose as a condition of receiving aid;
 - (d) that the school-board may delegate to any body appointed by itself or subordinate to it any duties in regard to any school or class of institutions under its control which it thinks fit so to delegate:
- (4)—the Local Government declare from time to time what funds constituting a school-fund shall be vested in any school-board for educational purposes, and what proportion of such school-fund shall be assigned to any class of education :
- (5) —it be the duty of every school-board—
 - (a) to prepare an annual budget of its income and expenditure;
 - (#) to determine what schools shall be wholly maintained at the cost of the school-fund, what schools are eligible for grants-in-aid, and which of them shall receive aid;
 - (c) to keep a register of all schools, whether maintained at the cost of public funds or added or unaided, which are situated in its school-district;
 - (d) to construct and repair school-houses or to grant aid towards their construction or repair;
 - (e) generally to carry out any other of the objects indicated in the various Recommendations of the Commission, which in the opinion of the Local Government can best be secured by legislative enactment, or by rules made under the Act:
- (6)—the appointment, reduction of salary, or dismissal, of teachers in

schools maintained by the board be left to the school-board; provided that the said board shall be guided in its appointments by any rules as to qualifications which may be laid down from time to time by the Department; and provided that an appeal shall lie to the Department against any order of dismissal or reduction of salary:

- (7)—an appeal lie to the Department against any order of a board in regard to such matters as the Local Government shall specify :
- (8)—every school-board be required to submit to the Local Government through the Department an annual report of its administration, together with its accounts of income and expenditure, in such form and on such date as shall be prescribed by the Local Government ; and thereon the Local Government declare whether the existing supply of schools of any class, of which the supervision has been entrusted to such board, is sufficient to secure adequate proportionate provision for the education of all classes of the community; and in the event of the said Government declaring that the supply is insufficient, it determine from what sources and in what manner the necessary provision of schools shall be made:
- (9) —it be incumbent upon every Local Government or Administration to frame a Code of rules for regulating the conduct of education by municipal and local boards in the provinces subject to such Local Government or Administration:
- (10)- such Code shall define and regulate—**
- (a) the internal mechanism of the Education Department in regard** to direction, inspection, and teaching;
 - (b) the external relations of the Department to private individuals** and public bodies engaged in the work of education;
 - (c) the scope, functions, and rules of the system of grants-in-aid;**
 - (d) the character of any special measures for the education of classes** requiring exceptional treatment;
 - (e) the scope and divisions of the annual report upon the progress of** public instruction, together with the necessary forms of returns:
- (j1)—power be reserved to the Local Government from time to time to add to, cancel, or modify the provisions of the said Code:**
- (12)—the Code be annually published in the official Gazette in such a form as to show separately all articles which have been cancelled or modified and all new articles which have been introduced since the publication of the last edition.

CHAPTER XII.

PIN AN CI AL SUMMARY.

655. Introductory: Division of the Subject.—In the present Chapter we shall give a short account of the chief sources of revenue from which Educational funds are supplied, and of the manner in which they are applied to different classes of education. With this object, we shall (i) show in what proportion provincial, local and municipal revenues severally contribute to the total cost of the schools and colleges with which our Report deals. We shall describe the system of provincial assignments and the changes made in recent years under which the Local Governments have been given greater authority over the funds placed at their disposal for promoting education. The administration of local and municipal funds, and the treatment of fees, will also be explained. We shall (2) examine the distribution of expenditure from public funds, consisting of provincial, local and municipal grants, not only over the whole field of education, whether collegiate, secondary or primary, but also among the various agencies at work. This part of our enquiry will throw light upon the main question referred to the Commission in the following extract from the orders of the 3rd February 1882: “ The Government holds that the different branches of public instruction should, if possible, move forward together, and with more equal step than hitherto, and the principal object, therefore, of the enquiry of the Commission should be the present state of elementary education throughout the empire, and the means by which this can everywhere be extended and improved. We shall (3) enlarge the scope of our enquiry so as to include the whole expenditure upon education of all sorts and for all classes of the community in each of the nine Provinces of India whose history has been reviewed- This part of our Report will throw some light upon the sufficiency or insufficiency of the provision made from public funds for education. We shall show what proportion of the public revenues is devoted to education in each Province. Some of our Recommendations contemplate the more liberal recognition and extension of private enterprise, as well as increased expenditure mother ways; and a comparison between the assignments made in one Province and those made in another will enable Government to determine where the present expenditure is insufficient and from what sources of revenue it may be increased. At the same time we would not be understood to desire absolute uniformity in the financial arrangements of each Province, since we recognise the fact that the resources of various parts of India differ almost as much as local requirements. But we are persuaded that the irregularities of system, which will be noticed, are in a large measure due to the different treatment of identical considerations, and that the experience of one Province may be profitably applied by another.

656. Definition of Terms—Throughout this Chapter we shall make frequent reference to the term *public funds*.* In that term we include funds assigned for the purposes of education from provincial, local, and municipal revenues. Provincial revenues are raised from general taxation and are made available for expenditure at the discretion of Local Governments, under financial arrangements with the Supreme Government, which will presently

be described. In the Statistical Tables appended to this Report the funds devoted to education from the revenues of the Native States in Bombay are not shown as part of public funds. From one point of view, in contrast with the private funds supplied by the managers of aided or unaided schools or by benefactors, they are public funds: but, on the other hand, they are not funds over which British officers exercise any direct control. In this Chapter they will also be shown separately from those public funds which are mainly raised by taxation from British subjects. Local funds are, in most Provinces of India, rates or cesses levied on the land under the sanction of law, while in others, as in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, they are collected under the sanction of Government as part of the settlement of the land revenue. Their constitution and administration will be described in a subsequent paragraph. Municipal funds are granted by the vote of Municipal Committees out of the proceeds of the town-rates levied under the various municipal laws. Besides these public funds, the cost of education is met from "fees" and "other sources." Fees paid in departmental institutions are credited to the funds at whose cost such institutions are maintained. Such fees might therefore be classed as public funds, but they are essentially local resources and afford a valuable indication of the amount of self-help available for the extension of education. They are accordingly distinguished in this Chapter from other funds, and shown in a separate column, together with all other fee-receipts returned as being levied in aided or inspected institutions. The heading "other sources" includes all educational funds, which are neither supplied from the public purse nor from the fees paid by pupils. They represent endowments and popular subscriptions, as well as the private expenditure returned to the Department as incurred by private bodies in the maintenance of colleges and schools under their management.

657. Elimination of certain Charges.—The total cost of education from all sources in 1881-82, so far as it is known to the Department in the nine Provinces whose educational operations have been reviewed, was Rs. 1,82,15,169. This expenditure represents not merely the cost of those institutions with which our Report is concerned, amounting to Rs. 1,61,10,282, but also the cost of educating Europeans and Eurasians, and the expenditure on technical and professional colleges and schools. It includes, moreover not merely all public expenditure, but also that which is reported to have been incurred by private managers. The enquiries of the Commission were expressly limited by the exclusion from their review of technical institutions, whether legal, medical or engineering, which were not merely classes attached to institutions for general education; and of measures for the education of Europeans and Eurasians. The total expenditure on the former institutions in 1881-82 amounted to Rs. 8,86,227, and on the latter to Rs. 12,18,660; so that the total expenditure on the branches of education with which the Commission is directly concerned amounted to Rs. 1,61,10,282. This amount includes, it is true, the greater portion of University expenditure, but since the functions of the University as an examiningbody affect not merely colleges but high schools, it is proper to include it here, notwithstanding the fact that the general working of the Universities is excluded from our enquiries. The expenditure, therefore, which we have now to analyse amounts to Rs. 1,61,10,282, that is to 88*44 Per cent. of the total educational expenditure incurred in the nine Provinces of India in the year ending 3*st March 1882.

658. Incidence of Expenditure on public and other Funds.—The following Statement shows the chief sources which supplied the expenditure of Rs. 1,61,10,282. We shall explain briefly the operations of the Department

with respect to these sources of revenue. We shall then compare the provision of funds made in the various Provinces of India, and show the relation which public expenditure bears to the proceeds of fees and to the cost incurred from other sources.

Statement showing the sources of educational Expenditure in 1881-82

PBOVOTCS.	Provincial revenues.	Cess or Local rates	Municipal grants.	Total Public Funds.	Bombay Native State revenues.	Fees.	Other sources.	GRATO TOIAJL.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Bs.	Es.	Es.	Rs.	Bs.	Bs.	Bs.	Bs.
Madras	7,75,420	5,45,240	77,166	13,97,448		9,44,776	6,52,483	29,94,707
Bombay	9,28,338	7,63,099	80,423	17,71,860	4,92,876	445,753	2,36,258	29,46,747
Bengal	22,63,537	9,883	24,497	22,97,917	IM	20,80,380	11,80,998	55,59,295
North-Western Provinces and Oudh. . .	8,59,522	5,97,541	49,829	15,06,882	»«	86,324	2,62,366	18,55,572
Punjab	3,74,496	4,96,214	44,422	10,95,321		1,08,796	2,38,439	14,42,556
Central Provinces .	3,50,886	1,32,256	33,375	5,16,517		33,236	86,071	6,35,824
Assam .	1,37,372	56,472	360	1,94,203		57,636	[49,709]	3,01,548
Coorg	13,230	7,063	«	20,293		2,224	220	22,737
Haidarabad Assigned Districts	2,34,582	87,482	1,377	3,23,441	»	26,881	974	3,51,296
India (nine Provinces) .	60,64,135	26,48,298	4,11,449	91,23,882	4,92,876*	37,86,006	27,07,518	1,61,10,282

* Including Rs. 29,991 for inspection.
f Excluding Native State contributions shown in column 6.

659. Provincial Funds.—Prior to 1870, the Indian Local Governments had comparatively little financial responsibility for education or for any other branch of the administration. All revenues were paid into the Imperial treasury to the credit of the Imperial Government, and the money so collected was annually distributed by grants among the different Local Governments for the various services detailed in the annual estimates, which were submitted by them to the Financial Department of the Government of India. The Local Governments had very little direct share, or interest, in increasing the revenues, inasmuch as the control of the public purse was strictly centralised. No single item of the public establishments could be increased without Imperial sanction; nor could the estimates be altered or exceeded without such sanction, unless a reappropriation of funds allotted for a minor head of expenditure was made to another head of the same account. On the other hand, the Local Governments had a keen interest in expenditure, for which the demands of a progressive administration afforded a legitimate excuse and a constant occasion. Thus, while those which were primarily spending Departments looked only, or mainly, to their own needs, the problem before the central controlling authority was how best to apply, on admittedly imperfect information, a strictly limited revenue to multiplied claims of quite indefinite extension. Such a system of conflicting objects and interests led, as was stated, to importunity on the one hand, and to minute and vexatious supervision on the other; which culminated in what was well described as a scramble for the public purse, in which the largest share fell to the loudest and most persistent applicant. A further defect in the system was that in the case of any unforeseen disaster, such as war or famine, affecting the

finance of India, education in common with all other branches of the administration deriving support from the public treasury was liable to suffer from a sudden and unexpected withdrawal of funds. An arrangement so obviously defective naturally aroused criticism and a desire for reform, and accordingly a remedy was devised in 1870, when Lord Mayo adopted a measure of financial decentralisation which, with important modifications and developments introduced in 1877-78 and 1881-82, is still in force.

It would be beyond the scope of this report to discuss this measure except in its effect upon education. It [is sufficient to say that in all the large Provinces of India, education, with eight other Departments, was made over in 1871 to the Local Governments, together with the departmental receipts, and a lump sum assigned to each of them for the administration of the Departments so transferred. In the Resolution of December 1870 giving effect to these arrangements the conditions under which the transfer of education was made were thus described:—“Although no law exists upon the subject of education, the policy

* such as No. 49, dated 19th July 1854. Government has been declared and prescribed in Despatches* from the Secretary of State, the authority of which, and of the rules

3' 4> „ 7th April 1859. „ 1, „ 23rd January 1864.

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“sanctioned by the Government of India regard-

“ing grants-in-aid and other matters of general principle, is not affected by this Resolution.”⁵ It may be noticed that the Despatches and orders regarding education were not specified, but cited *en bloc*, and that no hard-and-fast line was drawn between the matters of principle to be reserved, and those of detail to be left to the discretion of the Local Governments. The scheme initiated in 1871 was financially incomplete, and its defect was that it admitted of little expansion of revenue. The grant made to supplement receipts was barely sufficient to maintain in efficiency the services transferred, and it left no margin for progress or improvement. In 1877 Lord Mayo's scheme received an important development. Not merely were other departments of expenditure handed over to the Local Governments, but certain revenues capable of steady expansion under careful local management were similarly transferred. Education has always been, and to a greater or less extent always must be, a spending department. Its position was not therefore directly affected by the changes of 1877. Still it participated indirectly in the benefits then conferred. The Education Department in each Province looked for its annual grant to its own Government on the spot. Except on certain fixed conditions in times of financial disaster, such as war or famine, affecting Imperial revenues, this grant was independent of ordinary financial risks. It was therefore on the whole secure; and, moreover, it was given by a Government which had unfettered discretion in spending its revenues and was in close communication with its own Education Department. But hitherto the Local Government had not possessed adequate means for increasing its educational grant. The orders of 1877 supplied those means. When the arrangements made in 1877 ended in 1882, it was found that the sources of income transferred to the Provincial Governments had proved so elastic that the revenue of the last year exceeded that of the first year, after all necessary off-sets and deductions, by nearly one million pounds sterling. The financial position of education was therefore greatly strengthened by the orders of 1871 and 1877* These remarks do not apply to Coorg, or to the Haidarabad Assigned Districts. But in the case of the latter the Resident at Haidarabad has always made liberal provision for the wants of education, and a system somewhat analogous to that of a provincial assignment has in recent years been introduced into this Province*

It is only necessary to complete this review by a brief reference to the

orders issued in September 1881, when the previous arrangements were confirmed, consolidated and extended. Additional heads of revenue and expenditure were then transferred to the Local Governments, which were invited to make corresponding financial concessions to local bodies and committees of a partially non-official character, in view of the introduction of local self-government in those departments, in the successful management of which local supervision and care were declared to be specially necessary. Education was mentioned as one of these departments, and in order to give effect to the views then expressed by the Government of India, legislative measures are now under consideration. Hence the present situation is, that, subject to the restrictions of 1870 cited above, Local Governments exercise entire control over educational charges. The arrangements made with them must be viewed as a whole, and although education is not a department in which large savings can be effected or the expenses entirely met by the receipts, still a large margin of revenue upon the whole contract is left to the Local Governments, and the increased provision of funds for education depends upon receipts from other departments and the growth of the revenue transferred under other heads.

660. Local Rates.—The creation of local rates is of older date than the separate constitution of provincial revenues. By the beginning of the year 1871 all Provinces of India, except Bengal and Assam, had created local rates for expenditure by District or Municipal Boards on purely local wants. In Bengal a local cess was subsequently imposed for roads, but no share of it goes to education. In Assam local rates were legalised in 1879, and education receives a share of them. There is a marked absence of uniformity in India in the treatment of local rates. In Northern India, with the exception of Bengal, their proceeds are first credited to provincial funds, from which a part of them is allotted for expenditure on education. But in Bombay, Bengal and Madras the local fund revenue is a distinct fund administered by local bodies more or less independent of the Provincial Government; and to this distinct fund all unexpended balances lapse at the end of the year. Bombay, however, is the only Province of India which has taken a further step in separating the educational share of its local funds from the general local fund account. In that Province education is declared by statutory rule to be entitled to a minimum share of local fund revenue. The schoolmasters who are paid from this fund have their pensions provided from the same fund, and the claims of education are fully protected from competition with the claims of public works or of the other great services supplied from the local fund. In other parts of India, education receives any balance which can be spared for its wants from the general fund; and if the Department fails to spend its allotment in the year the unspent balance lapses to the general fund, and in Northern India to provincial revenues. In most Provinces the distribution of the share of local rates allotted to education is made through the agency of the Local Boards, whose members are more or less subject to official control. It is only necessary to add that local fund revenues, like the provincial revenue, are fairly elastic. Education has therefore an equitable claim upon the natural increment, but in no Province of India, except Bombay, is this claim recognised by rule having the force of law.

661. Municipal Contributions.—The financial administration of municipalities is uniform throughout India. Municipal bodies had been constituted by the legislature before Local Boards were created, and from the first each municipality has kept its own separate accounts. Municipal budgets require the sanction of official authority. But, speaking generally, neither the Supreme nor the Provincial Government interferes in practice with the discretion allow-

ed by the law to Town Boards. The financial accounts of the Government of India exclude the revenues and expenditure of municipalities, and thus emphasise their financial independence. Their accounts, however, have been published as an Appendix to the Financial Statement of 1883-84. With regard to education, there is a further uniformity throughout India in the fact that the law generally allows, but does not compel, municipalities to provide for education. Quite recently Government has relieved municipalities of certain charges upon their revenues with a view to enabling them to devote part of their income to education and other local wants. But the law at present remains unaltered, and therefore the Education Department has nowhere hitherto acquired any legal claim upon municipal revenues. Including the grants given for the education of Europeans and contributions towards technical schools, the total assistance rendered by municipalities to education in the nine Provinces of India in 1881-82 was only Rs. 4,33,182, which represented but 2'37 per cent, of the total expenditure on education of all sorts and from all sources. The Punjab is the only Province of India in which municipalities make liberal grants to schools. It may be remarked that the revenue of municipalities is even more elastic than that of local funds; and in the opinion of several witnesses the time has arrived when municipalities should be compelled by law to contribute more liberally to education.

662* Fees.—We have shown that out of the expenditure of Rs. 1,61,10,282 incurred upon Education in 1881-82, fees supplied Rs. 37,86,006, or 23'50 per cent, of the whole expenditure. We shall hereafter show the proportion which fees bear to contributions from public funds. For the present we shall only consider the financial rules which apply to them. In the accounts of the Department fees are treated differently according to the institutions in which they are raised. In departmental institutions more than 11 lakhs of rupees were raised in fees; and these fees, except in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, were credited as they were collected to the funds at whose cost the institutions are maintained. In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts the fee-receipts are entrusted to the school committees, who spend them, without any budget arrangements, on prizes and school apparatus. Under this latter system poor schools are starved, while rich schools are in danger of wasting their receipts. No efficient control is maintained over the expenditure, and it is said that unspent balances have in some places accumulated. In the rest of India the fee-receipts are credited in the public treasury to provincial or local funds as the case may be, and in the accounts rendered by the Department at the end of the year, they are deducted from the charges against those funds, which are accordingly debited with the net cost alone. In aided or inspected institutions the fees are the property of the school-managers, and are not brought into the public accounts. University fees are paid to the credit of the University fund. A review of the fee-receipts for the last ten years shows that they form an increasing income; and in preceding Chapters we have expressed our belief that this branch of income is capable of a large increase.

663- Other Sources*—We may omit further notice of the ways and means of education supplied by Native States in Bombay. These Feudatory States supply the funds required for education, and they borrow the services of Inspectors from the Bombay Department in order to supervise the expenditure. The increase of the grants now made by them depends entirely upon the liberality of the Native Chiefs and upon the influence of the political officers. It is **only in recent years** that the attention of these Chiefs has been turned to the subject, and it may be hoped that, as their revenues increase by careful administration, they will make a more liberal provision for the education of

their subjects. The heading "Other sources," in the Table of expenditure already given, includes subscriptions and donations, endowments, as also the private expenditure on aided schools or colleges according to the accounts rendered by the managers of such institutions. If private enterprise be more systematically and liberally aided, we may expect that these private resources will largely increase. The Department can, however, only indirectly contribute to this result by sympathetic and generous treatment of privately managed schools; and we entertain the hope that the adoption of the Recommendations recapitulated by us in Chapter VIII will contribute to this result.

664. Comparative Incidence of Expenditure in various Provinces —

We have shown the amounts contributed in 1881-82 from different sources to the expenditure of Rs. 1,61,10,282 on such education as is dealt with in this Report. We shall now give a Table to show the different proportions which these amounts bear to the total cost of education in each of the nine Provinces of India-. The statement exhibits great differences of system, which will at once strike the eye. Here it is only necessary to observe that it has always been regarded as a sound principle that the assistance rendered from public funds should bear some proportion to local resources. Among strictly local resources the most important are fees, which afford an index of the effective demand for education, and on which we shall presently offer a few special remarks. The next in importance are the resources of private managers, and the subscriptions and endowments shown in the column headed "Other sources." Even local funds and municipal contributions, though collected under legal sanction, may in one aspect be regarded as coming under the definition of local resources, inasmuch as they represent local effort, which though now no longer voluntary was in some Provinces at first supplied without the compulsion of law. But throughout this Report we have treated all funds that are raised by compulsory taxation as public funds; and in support of this practice we may add that it is to some extent through official or departmental influence that local and municipal rates are applied to the purposes of education. Whatever view of the character of these funds be taken, the Tables given in this Chapter afford the means of making any comparison that may be desired. They show at a glance that no uniform proportion exists between expenditure from provincial funds, and that from fees or other local resources. So far as primary education is concerned, the Government of India, in a Resolution No. 63, dated February 1871, published shortly after the decentralisation order of 1870, declared its policy in the following terms :⁶⁶ The fact is that pri-

⁶⁶ mary education must be supported both by Imperial funds and by local rates.

" It is not by any means the policy of the Government of India to deny to primary schools assistance from Imperial revenues; but, on the other hand, no sum that could be spared from these revenues would suffice for the work, and local rates must be raised to effect any sensible impression on the masses. This does not lessen the obligation of Government to contribute as liberally as other demands allow, to supplement the sums raised by local effort. The true policy will be to distribute the Imperial funds, so far as such funds are available, in proportion to the amount raised by the people from each District.⁵⁷ The figures given in the statement below, when compared with those which will be given hereafter, show that the principle of some fixed ratio between provincial grants and local resources has not been maintained throughout India. With regard to the figures for the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, attention must be called to the remarks made in Chapter IV, where it is explained that the whole local revenue is not shown as local fund expenditure on education, but that part of it is credited to provincial funds and shown as provincial expenditure.

Table showing the Proportion of educational Expenditure in 1881-82 borne by each Source of Revenue.

PBOTHCS.	Percentage borne by Provincial Revenues.	Percentage borne by Local Rates.	Percentage borne by Municipal Grants.	Total percentage borne by Public Funds.	Percentage borne by Native State Sevmies.	Percentage borne by Fees.	Percentage borne by other sources.	Total Expenditure.
								fis.
Madras	25.9	18.2	2.5	46.6		3.6	21.8	29,94,707
Bombay	3.5	25.9	27.3	60.13	18.73	15.12	8.02	29,46,747
Bengal	40.71	1.18	4.44	41.33	4.11	37.42	21.25	55,59,295
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	46.32	32.2	2.69	81.21		4.65	14.14	18,55,572
Puigab	34.77	3.15	10.01	75.93	11.11	7.54	16.53	14,42,556
Central Provinces	55.18	2.08	5.25	81.23		5.23	3.54	6,35,824
Assam	45.55	18.73	1.12	64.40		19.11	16.49	3,01,548
Coorg	58.19	31.06		89.25	11.11	9.78	1.97	22,737
Haidarabad Assigned Districts	66.78	24.90	3.39	92.07		7.65	1.28	3,51,296
India (Nine Provinces)	37.64	16.43	2.56	56.63	3.06	23.50	16.81	1,61,10,282

665- Fees .—The different proportion in which fees contribute to the cost of education is very marked. Not only does the proportion vary considerably between Province and Province, but it varies between one class of institution and another. In the Central Provinces it might be expected that fee-receipts would be small, but in the North-Western Provinces it is remarkable that with a public expenditure which supplies 81 per cent, of the whole cost of education, not 5 per cent, of the cost is paid by fees. Bombay stands in marked contrast with Madras. In the former Presidency, with a public expenditure amounting to 60 per cent., or if the contributions from Native States are included to nearly 77 per cent., of the whole cost of education, only 15 per cent, is met by fees ; but in Madras, while public funds pay less than half the cost of all schools, fees contribute nearly one-third. In Bengal the proportion borne by fees is still more satisfactory. It must be remembered that in Provinces where primary education is mainly supplied by indigenous or other aided schools the cost to public funds is less, and the proportion of expenditure borne by fees is consequently greater than in Provinces where schools for the masses are wholly maintained at the cost of local and provincial revenues. Turning now to the different classes of institutions to which the fee receipts throughout India are credited, we find that the proportion of 23 per cent, shown in the Table is thus distributed. Departmental institutions raise in fees 6.9 per cent, of the whole expenditure upon education in India, aided schools raise nearly 13 per cent., and unaided schools under inspection 2.7 per cent.; while the remainder is chiefly derived from University fees.

666. The Distribution of Public Expenditure —We now enter upon the second part of our enquiry. The distribution of the expenditure from public funds among the various classes of education is a matter of even greater importance than the amount of those funds. The following table shows what proportion of the public grant from (1) Provincial, (2) Local, and (3) Municipal funds respectively was devoted in each Province to collegiate, secondary, and primary education. We think it needless to offer any detailed comments upon the Table, which is of itself sufficient to show that no uniform distribution of public funds exists throughout India. But we call attention to the remarks made in Chapter IV under the head of “ Claims of primary Education upon public Funds,” and to the account there given of the discussion which took place at our meeting of February 14th, 1883. The Commission finally adopted the recommendation that primary education be declared to be that part of the whole system of public instruction which possesses an almost exclusive claim upon local funds set apart for education, and a large claim on provincial revenues.* The following Table shows how far the principle thus asserted is at present carried out in practice.

each Class of Education in each Province for the year 1881-82.

CENTRAL PROVINCES.		ASSAM.		COOBBG.		HAIARABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS.		IJTDIA*		CLASS OF FUNDS.	OBJECT OF EXPENDITURE.
Amount.	Percentage.	Amount.	Percentage.	Amount.	Percentage.	Amount.	Percentage.	Amount.	Percentage.		
Bs. 9,435	2*69	Bs.	Bs. 7,27,602	12*00	Provincial) > COLLEGIATE EDUCATION.
...	9*372	228	Local	
...	Municipal	
9,485	1*82	7,36,974	8*08	Total Public Funds.	
63,180	18*01	47,778	3478	7,518	56*83	53*153	22*66	14,82,791	24*45	Provincial) « > SECONDARY EDUCATION.
9*883	29*61	285	79*17	13	0*01	69,876	2*64	Local	
...	31	3*25	1,03,935	25,26	Municipal	
73,063	14*15	46,063	24*75	7,518	37*05	53,197	16*45	16,56,602	1817	Total Public Funds.	
76,130	2170	11,930	8*68	2,206	16*67	98,673	42*07	13,89,856	22*92	Provincial) « # I TION.
1,23,529	93*40	5,434	90*55	6,150	87*07	54,192	61*95	19,86,642	75*02	Local	
21,169	63*42	75	20*83	1,333	96*80	2,47,502	60*16	Municipal	
2,20,828	42*75	63,139	32*51	8,356	41*18	1,54*198	47*67	36*24,000	39*72	Total Public Funds.	
28,440	8*10	13*249	9*65	1,890	14*29	8,571	3*65	2,89,041	4*77	Provincial) > PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL Classes.
24	0*07	3,363	5*96	81,740	3*08	Local	
...	4,998	1*21	Municipal	
28,464	5*51	16,612	8*55	1,890	9*31	8,571	2*65	3,75,779	4*11	Total Public Funds.	
1*73,701	49*56	64,414	46*89	1,616	12*21	74,185	31*62	21,74,845	35*86	Provincial) (Bisection. Inefficiency, T Jnybmi- f TTES A2TD MISCELLANEOUS.
8,727	6*60	1,975	3*49	913	12*93	33,277	38*04	5,10,040	19*26	Local	
2,399	6*90	13	0*95	45,642	11*09	Municipal	
...	35*77	66,389	34*19	2,529	12*46	1,07,475	33*23	27,30,527	29*92	Total Public Funds.	
3,50,886	...	1,37,371	...	13,230	...	2,34,582	...	26,48,035	...	Provincial) * TOTAL.
1,32,256	...	56,472	...	7,063	...	87,482	...	26,48,298	...	Local	
33,375	...	360	1,377	...	4^449	...	Municipal	
5,16,517	...	1,04,203	...	20,293	...	3,23,441	...	91,23,	...	Total Public Funds.	

* Public funds respectively, bears to the total expenditure on education from each of those funds. For instance, collegiate education in Madras,

667- Distribution of Public Funds according to Educational Agen-

— & further analysis of the expenditure from public funds upon education in the year 1881-82 will throw light upon the question of the development of private enterprise. In Chapter VIII we have shown in what Provinces of India little has yet been done for encouraging aided schools in preference to departmental schools. We shall not, therefore, attempt any analysis of the provincial figures. But if the total expenditure in the nine Provinces from public funds, amounting to Rs. 91,23,882 in 1881-82, be traced in its application to each class of agency, it will be found that 29[·]92 per cent, was devoted to indirect charges, such as the Universities, direction, inspection, scholarships, and other miscellaneous charges, from which all branches of educational activity derived benefit: while 70·08 per cent, went to meet the direct charges of maintaining or assisting educational institutions. Departmental colleges and schools received 49[·]94 per cent., and institutions under private management received 20[·]14 per cent, of the public expenditure stated above. Of the share thus given to departmental institutions, provincial revenues paid 54 per cent., and local and municipal funds 40 and 6 per cent, respectively: while the assistance rendered to private enterprise from public funds was distributed in the ratio of 77 per cent, from provincial revenues, and 17 and 6 per cent, from local and municipal funds respectively. As the statistical Tables 3a and 3c appended to this Report show a different percentage, it is necessary to observe that the figures here analysed represent the public expenditure on those institutions alone with which our Report deals, and not on all classes of education.

668. **Total educational Expenditure in India.**—We have hitherto confined our attention to the expenditure incurred upon those classes of institutions with which our Report has been concerned. We now enter upon the third division of the present Chapter. We have to examine certain complaints which have been made regarding the insufficiency of the ways and means of education as provided from public funds. In order to do this, we shall compare the total expenditure upon all classes of education, as shown in the departmental accounts, with the revenues of the public funds which have supplied it. We shall take into consideration the expenditure on the education of Europeans and Eurasians, as well as the cost of technical schools and colleges. The public expenditure hitherto considered amounts, as shown in the Table already given, to Rs. 91,23,882; but that with which we shall now deal is an expenditure of Rs. 1,01,82,684, which represents the cost to public funds of all education in the nine Provinces whose history has been reviewed. This expenditure is arrived at after deducting the fees received in departmental institutions, and after including the cost of buildings and of all other charges, such as the cost of medical colleges, which properly belong to education. It excludes, however, as all Tables of expenditure given in our Report do, the charges incurred by the State on account of pensions and gratuities to educational officers. Including fees and the funds expended from endowments and from all other sources independent of the State, the total expenditure on education generally amounted in 1881-82 to Rs. 1,82,15,169. Of this sum, Rs. 1,01,82,684 were supplied from public funds, that is from provincial, local and municipal funds together. We have considered all these funds, which are raised by compulsory taxation, as public funds, though there is an obvious distinction between provincial revenues which are supplied by the tax-paying community of the whole empire, and local and municipal funds which are raised and expended locally. These last funds may, from one point of view, be regarded as a part of local resources, and although they are called forth by legal enactment, they must somewhat reduce the fund from which voluntary educational effort could be supplied. Where, as in Bengal, there are no local rates, it is urged that fee contributions

largely take their place; and we have already noticed the large percentage of the cost of education in that Province which is met by fee-receipts. But, as in this Chapter we have separately shown each source of educational expenditure, it will be easy to compare the provision made in any Province of India from any particular source with that which is made in other Provinces. We have, however, found it more convenient to treat provincial, local, and municipal grants as public funds; and it may be observed with reference to all these sources of revenue that it rests with the Government to increase their contributions to education either by altering the law, or by exercising its direct or indirect influence over the boards. Local funds are voted by the local boards, but the Government has power to make bye-laws, and the budgets of the boards require official sanction. The power of municipalities over the town purse is greater, but even here the budgets generally require the sanction of Government, and the Municipal boards are not indifferent to the advice which they receive from the Local Governments. Provincial revenues, as already shown, are at the absolute disposal of the Local Governments. For these reasons the three separate funds included under the name of public funds are more or less capable of increase, if Government should consider it right to interfere. We shall now inquire into the sufficiency of the sums devoted to education from each of these sources, and in order to throw light on the subject we shall compare the grants made in 1881-82 with the whole revenue of the funds from which they were made.

669. Comparison of departmental Statistics with the Imperial Accounts*—It is necessary, at the outset, to explain the inconsistencies which at once strike the eye on a comparison of the accounts of the Departments with those given in the Financial Statements annually Government of India. The two sets of accounts appear at first conciliable. Not only do they differ by very large sums, but they are not uniform. In one Province the departmental accounts show a larger expenditure than the Imperial accounts, and in another less. The Imperial accounts represent the true statement of receipts and expenditure. The departmental accounts are to some extent less accurate, because they are compiled soon after the end of the year to which they refer, and before the final audit of the accounts has taken place. The accounts of India for 1881-82 do not appear until the Estimates for 1883-84 are published. The departmental reports for 1881-82 are published about the month of October 1882. To this difference of the dates on which the two sets of accounts are rendered, must be attributed some part of the discrepancy between the expenditure shown in the departmental reports and in the Financial Statement. The discrepancy arising from this cause is, however, small, and the main causes for the large discrepancy have yet to be explained. The accounts of India under the head of Expenditure on Education show both more and less than the departmental accounts. They show more, because they show the gross expenditure and do not deduct the receipts from fees. They show less, because they adopt an entirely different classification of expenditure. Thus, to take one example, the expenditure on departmental school-buildings is shown in the accounts of India under Civil buildings, but in the departmental accounts it is included as an educational charge. Again, the expenditure on medical schools and colleges is shown in the Imperial accounts under the head of Medical Services, while it is included by the Department among educational charges. Any occasional agreement between the two sets of accounts would be quite accidental, and if it were observed in the accounts of one year it would be absent from those of another. Thus, the gross expenditure as shown in the Imperial accounts for the three largest Provinces of India for 1881-82, charged against Provincial revenues only, and therefore

excluding the charges against local or municipal revenues, contrasts with the departmental accounts as follows. The Imperial accounts show a gross educational expenditure in Madras from provincial revenues of Es. 10,45,000, while the receipts credited to these revenues were Es. 1,68,000. The departmental accounts, which deduct fees but include buildings and all indirect educational expenditure, except pension charges paid from Imperial revenues, show a charge against provincial revenues of Es. 9,81,000. The Madras expenditure therefore appears, according to the departmental accounts, to be less than the gross, and more than the net, expenditure shown in the Imperial accounts. The same result is observed in Bengal, where the expenditure, shown by the Department, Es. 26,45,000, is less than the gross expenditure of Es. 27,77,000 shown in the Imperial accounts, and much more than the net expenditure shown by them after deducting the receipts of Es. 5,73,000, the reason being that the fee-receipts in Bengal are larger than the excluded expenditure for school-buildings and for medical education. In Bombay the departmental accounts show an expenditure of Es. 11,38,000, which not only very largely exceeds the net expenditure shown in the accounts of India after deducting fees, but which even exceeds the gross expenditure shown in the Imperial accounts at Es. 10,58,000. The explanation lies in the fact that, although the departmental accounts in Bombay exclude fees, they include a more than counterbalancing expenditure on buildings and certain other charges which, according to the classification of the Imperial accounts, appear under other heads of expenditure than education. It is not, therefore, suited to the purposes of this Report to take the accounts of the Government of India; which, although they are more accurate as far as they go, include some items which it is necessary from our point of view to omit, and exclude others which are required for our purposes. There is another reason for following the departmental accounts. The expenditure is not distributed in the Imperial accounts according to classes of education or of educational agency. For these reasons we shall continue to follow the accounts of expenditure rendered by the Department, and in contrasting the expenditure from the several sources of public revenue with the total income of each, we shall not take the expenditure shown in the Imperial accounts. On the other hand, the income of each source of revenue will be shown as it is given in the accounts of India.

670. Provincial Contributions.—Reserving to the last the question of the sufficiency or insufficiency of the contributions rendered to education from provincial, local and municipal funds, we shall first compare those contributions with the income of the sources of revenue from which they were made. In doing so a difficulty occurs regarding the provincial income of the various Provinces in 1881-82. The Table given below contrasts the expenditure shown in the departmental accounts for 1881-82 with the revised estimates of provincial income shown in the accounts of India for 1882-83. The total expenditure in 1881-82 charged by the Department to provincial revenues on account of education, including professional and technical institutions, and the cost of educating Europeans and Eurasians, was Es. 70,76,137, to which Coorg contributed Es. 13,230 and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts Es. 2,35,522. But for reasons noticed hereafter these two Provinces are excluded from this part of our review. The comparison between the expenditure of one year and the income of another must be explained. Any comparison between the total expenditure on education in 1881-82, and the provincial revenues of that year, would be misleading for several reasons. In the first place the provincial revenues of 1881-82 were abnormally raised by the repayment to Local Governments of the contributions made by them to the Imperial treasury for the Afghan War. In

the next place, the revised arrangements made in 1882 reduced the grants made to Bengal and to the North-Western Provinces. Their expenditure on education has not been reduced, but their provincial revenues fixed for a term of five years have been curtailed. Lastly, the arrangements made with the several Governments in 1881-82 were not then uniform. Thus, for instance, the total provincial revenue of Madras was only one-half of the revenue of Bombay, and the provincial income of Assam was largely in excess of that of Madras. It must not be supposed that the Government which receives the largest provincial assignment is necessarily in the best position for making a liberal provision for educational wants. A larger gross income may imply only heavier charges and larger responsibilities involving a smaller net income. In the year 1882-83 the arrangements made with the Local Governments were fairly uniform, and were intended to place them relatively in the same position. The grants made to Bengal and the North-Western Provinces were, it is true, reduced. But the new arrangements settled the financial position of the several Governments for the future. It is with the future rather than the past that we are at present concerned, and the following Table which contrasts the provincial revenues of the various Provinces according to the revised estimates made in 1882 with their educational expenditure in the year with which our Report deals, will convey as accurate an impression as it is possible to give of the relative liberality with which the claims of education are treated by the Provincial Governments concerned. Ooorg and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts are not included in the arrangements referred to, and are therefore omitted from the Table.

Table showing the net Expenditure from Provincial Funds on Education in 1881-82, and the Income of those Funds in 1882-83, according to the Revised Estimates of that year.

PROVINCES.	Provincial revenues.	Educational expenditure from provincial revenues.	Percentage of educational expenditure to revenues.
		a	
Madras	2,27,12,000	9,81,793	4*3
Bombay	31,33,71,000	11,38,497	3*4
Bengal	4,37,73,000	26,45,710	6*5
North-Western Provinces & Oudh.	2,82,74,000	9,28,085	3*3
Punjab	1,37,67,000	6,30,198	4*6
Central Provinces	73,08,000	3,61,731	4*9
Assam	41,30,000	1,41,371	3*4

671. Local Fund Contributions—It may be observed that Bengal makes the largest assignment of any Province in India for education from provincial revenues, and this is easily explained by the absence of any local educational cess. The arnn.11 Mima contributed from local rates to schools in Bengal are **confined** to certain non-regulation tracts, and the local fund revenue of Bengal, shown in the following Table, is not by law chargeable with Education. Marira* also contributes a larger provincial grant than Bombay, but this inequality is more than redressed by the greater liberality of local funds in the latter Presidency. The following Table contrasts the local fund revenue of

each Province in 1881-82 with the share of it devoted in that year to education. The Haidarabad Assigned Districts are here included, but, for reasons already stated, the expenditure charged to their local fund revenue is underestimated. The local fund income shown below includes the receipts under Local Fund Revenues, as well as any contributions made from other sources of revenue, but it excludes opening balances.

Table showing the net Expenditure from Local Funds on Education in 1881-82, and the Income of those Funds in that Year.

PROVINCES.	Local Fund Revenues	Educational expenditure from Local Funds.	Percentage of educational expenditure to revenues.
	a	a	
Madras	91,03,985	5,62,534	6*2
Bombay	41,08,436	7,63,615	18*6
Bengal	44,95,447	9,883	...
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	82,54,998	5,97,541	7*2
Punjab	5,00,000	4,49,646	20-9
Central Provinces . .	5,90,513	1,32,256	22.4
Assam	4,15,974	6,3,345	15-2
Haidarabad Assigned Districts	4,61,608	87,482	18*9

672. Municipal Contributions—In regard to local funds there is no difficulty in ascertaining their annual income. Their accounts are published in the Financial Statements of India from which we have obtained the statistics already given. But in regard to municipal income a difficulty occurs. In the Chapter on **Primary Education** we compared the receipts of municipalities with their expenditure on primary schools, the statistics of income being extracted from the Annual Administration Reports of the various Local Governments. The opening balances were excluded. But the Administration Reports, like those of education, are published before the accounts of the year are finally audited; and as each municipality keeps its own accounts, and many of the municipalities are comparatively inexperienced, there is a great risk of error in the first statements of accounts rendered by them. Their expenditure on education is tested by the Education Department, and these figures can be relied upon, but their statements of income must be accepted with reservation. For the purposes of this Chapter we have taken the revenues of provincial and local funds from the Imperial accounts; and in the case of municipal revenues we shall also accept the figures given in Appendix C. in the Finance and Revenue Accounts of India for 1881-82. To the figures given for Bengal must be added the income of Calcutta, but with this exception we take the estimates of income as furnished in the accounts of the Government of India for 1881-82. The contrast between the municipal income raised in each Province and the expenditure on education from that source is very marked, and it throws some light upon the statements made by witnesses regarding the want of liberality shown by municipal corporations in most Provinces of India. It will be observed that the Punjab is the only Province in which there is any exception to this general rule.

Table showing the net Expenditure from Municipal Funds on Education in 1881-1882 and the Income of those Funds in that year.

PROVINCES.	Municipal revenues	Educational expenditure from Municipal Funds.	Percentage of educational expenditure to revenues.
	R.		
Madras	22,41,650	88,018	do
Bombay	66,82,150	80,423	1*2
Bengal	51,89,688	24,917	*48
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	25,51,980	52,069	2*04
Punjab	26,87,270	1,51,203	5*6
Central Provinces	11,57,23°	34,815	3°
Assam	87,900	360	•40
Haidarabad Assigned Districts	1,03,320	*,377	°3

673. Summary: Insufficiency of Contributions from Public Funds —

It seems inevitable that our Recommendations must lead to increased expenditure in two directions. In Chapter VIII we have recommended that “a periodically increasing provision be made in the educational budget of each Province for the expansion of aided institutions.” We have there discussed the danger to private enterprise of arbitrary restrictions of grants, and the necessity for revising the grant-in-aid rules in the various Provinces; a revision, from which we expect an increasing outlay upon schools and colleges under private management. In paragraph 667 we have seen that from the provision of public funds in 1881-82 for the classes of education with which our Report deals, institutions under private management received 20*14 per cent., and departmental institutions received 49*94 per cent. We have also seen (paragraph 665) that the former class of institutions contribute in the form of fees nearly 13 per cent., and the latter barely 7 Pe** cent, of the whole educational outlay in India. If the principle that assistance from public funds should bear some proportion to local contributions is to be fairly carried out, it is obvious that greater liberality must be shown in future in dealing with the claims of private enterprise. In other Chapters we have advocated the extension of primary education, while we have deprecated any check to more advanced education. Our Recommendations for transferring certain departmental institutions to private effort, and for raising fees wherever possible in all classes of institutions may effect considerable economy, but we believe that if the Indian Governments are to recognise adequately the great task before them, increased expenditure will be required. It has been our object in this Chapter to show precisely what grants are made in each Province for each class of education, and from each source of public revenue, and what proportion these grants bear to the total revenues. We do not consider that we are called upon to suggest measures for increasing the ways and means of education. We have stated the opinions of witnesses in regard to municipal obligations, and to the treatment of education at the hands of Local Boards. We have also explained the responsibilities and powers conferred on Local Governments under the scheme of decentralisation as now developed. The Tables given in this Chapter will show that various funds contribute more liberally in some Provinces than

in others to the cost of education, and the liberality of one part of India may afford an example to Local Governments or to Local Boards elsewhere. We believe that still greater efforts are generally demanded, and in support of this view we need only call attention to the return of institutions and scholars given in General Table (2a) at the end of this Report, which shows that in the area to which our enquiries are confined, containing 859,844 square miles, with 552,379 villages and towns, inhabited by 202,604,080 persons, there were only 112,218 schools and 2,643,978 Indian children or adults at school in 1881-82. The proportion of pupils, both male and female, to the population of school-going age, calculated in accordance with the principles described in Chapter II, is shown below —

PROVINCES.		Percentage of males.	Percentage of females.
		1778	1*48
f British Districts	• « •	24-96	1*85
Bombay . <			
(^ Native States .	• • □	1785	*93
		20*82	*80
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	• 0 9	8-25	•28
Punjab		12*11	72
Central Provinces		10-49	'44
Assam		14*61	•46
Coorg	* * •	22' 44	2'86
Haidarabad Assigned Districts	• • •	17*10	•22
Total for India	• * *	16*28	•84

These figures exclude the attendance in schools for Europeans and Eurasians, and in unattached institutions for professional or technical education, but they include that in all other institutions known to the Department in 1881-82. The most advanced Province of India still fails to reach 75 per cent, of its male children of the school-going age; 98 per cent, of its female children of that age ; while in one Province, with its total population of both sexes exceeding 44 millions, nearly 92 boys in every hundred are growing up in ignorance, and female education has hardly begun to make any progress. The census returns are equally conclusive in showing the magnitude of the work that remains before education in India can be placed upon a national basis. Taking the male population of Ajmir and of the nine Provinces with which our Report deals, which exceeds 103 millions, about 94J millions are wholly illiterate; while of the female population, numbering about 99,700,000, less than 99^ millions are returned as unable to read or write.

CHAPTER XIII

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE EDUCATION COMMISSION.

674.—We subjoin in a complete form the Recommendations adopted by the Commission in regard to each branch of education.

675.—(Q).—*Recommendations on Indigenous Education.*

1. That an indigenous school be defined as one established or conducted by natives of India on native methods.
2. That all indigenous schools, whether high or low, be recognised and encouraged, if they serve any purpose of secular education whatsoever.
3. That the best practicable method of encouraging indigenous schools of a high order, and desiring recognition, be ascertained by the Education Departments in communication with Pandits, Maulavis, and others interested in the subject.
4. That preference be given to that system which regulates the aid given mainly according to the results of examinations.
5. That special encouragement be afforded to indigenous schoolmasters to undergo training, and to bring their relatives and probable successors under regular training.
6. That a steady and gradual improvement in indigenous schools be aimed at, with as little immediate interference with their *personnel* or curriculum as possible.
7. That the standards of examination be arranged to suit each Province, with the view of preserving all that is valued by *the people* in the indigenous systems, and of encouraging by special grants the gradual introduction of useful subjects of instruction.
8. That indigenous schools receiving aid be inspected *in situ*, and, as far as possible, the examinations for their grants-in-aid be conducted *in situ*.
9. That aided indigenous schools, not registered as special schools, be understood to be open to all classes and castes of the community, special aid being, if necessary, assignable on account of low-caste pupils.
10. That such a proportion between special and other elementary indigenous schools be maintained in each town and District, as to ensure a proportionate provision for the education of all classes.
11. That where Municipal and Local boards exist, the registration, supervision, and **encouragement** of indigenous elementary schools, whether aided or unaided, be entrusted to such boards; provided that boards shall not interfere in any way with such schools as do not desire to receive aid, or to be subject to the supervision of the boards.
12. That the aid given to elementary indigenous schools be a charge against the funds at the disposal of Local and Municipal boards where such exist; and every indigenous school, which is registered for aid, receive from such boards the aid to which it is entitled under the rules.

13. That such boards be required to give elementary indigenous schools free play and development, and to establish fresh schools of their own only where the preferable alternative of aiding suitable indigenous schools cannot be adopted.

14. That the local inspecting officers be *ex-officio* members of Municipal or District school-boards.

15. That the officers of the Education Department keep lists of all elementary indigenous schools, and assist the boards in selecting schools to be registered for aid, and in securing a proportionate provision of education for all classes of the community.

676.—(2). —*Recommendations on Primary Education.*

1. That primary education be regarded as the instruction of the masses through the vernacular in such subjects as will best fit them for their position in life, and be not necessarily regarded as a portion of instruction leading up to the University.

2. That the upper primary and lower primary examinations be not made compulsory in any Province.

3. That while every branch of education can justly claim the fostering care of the State, it is desirable, in the present circumstances of the country, to declare the elementary education of the masses, its provision, extension, and improvement, to be that part of the educational system to which the strenuous efforts of the State should now be directed in a still larger measure than heretofore.

4. That an attempt be made to secure the fullest possible provision for, and extension of, primary education by legislation suited to the circumstances of each Province.

5. That where indigenous schools exist, the principle of aiding and improving them be recognised as an important means of extending elementary education.

6. That examinations by inspecting officers be conducted as far as possible *in situ* and all primary schools receiving aid be invariably inspected *in situ*.

7. That, as a general rule, aid to primary schools be regulated to a large extent according to the results of examination; but an exception may be made in the case of schools established in backward Districts or under peculiar circumstances, which may be aided under special rules.

8. That school-houses and furniture be of the simplest and most economical kind.

9. That the standards of primary examinations in each Province be revised with a view to simplification, and to the larger introduction of practical subjects, such as native methods of arithmetic, accounts and mensuration, the elements of natural and physical science, and their application to agriculture, health, and the industrial arts; but that no attempt be made to secure general uniformity throughout India.

10. That care be taken not to interfere with the freedom of managers of aided schools in the choice of text-books.

11. That promotion from class to class be not necessarily made to depend on the results of one fixed standard of examinations uniform throughout the Province.

^{12*} That physical development be promoted by the encouragement of native games, gymnastics, school-drill, and other exercises suited to the circumstances of each class of school,

13. That all inspecting officers and teachers be directed to see that the teaching and discipline of every school are such as to exert a right influence on the manners, the conduct, and the character of the children, and that, for the guidance of the masters, a special manual be prepared.

14. That the existing rules, as to religious teaching in Government schools, be applied to all primary schools wholly maintained by Municipal or Local Fund boards.

15. That the supply of Normal schools, whether Government or aided, be so localised as to provide for the local requirements of all primary schools, whether Government or aided, within the Division under each Inspector.

16. That the first charges on Provincial Funds assigned for primary education be the cost of its direction and inspection, and the provision of adequate Normal schools.

17. That pupils in Municipal or Local board-schools be not entirely exempted from payment of fees, merely on the ground that they are the children of rate-payers.

18. That in all board-schools, a certain proportion of pupils be admissible as free students on the ground of poverty; and in the case of special schools, established for the benefit of poorer classes, a general or larger exemption from payment of fees be allowed under proper authority for special reasons.

19. That, subject to the exemption of a certain proportion of free students on account of poverty, fees, whether in money or kind, be levied in all aided schools; but the proceeds be left entirely at the disposal of the school-managers.

20. That the principle laid down in Lord Hardinge's Resolution, dated 11th October 1844, be re-affirmed, *i.e.*, that in selecting persons to fill the lowest offices under Government, preference be always given to candidates who can read and write,

21. That the Local Governments, especially those of Bombay and of the North-Western Provinces, be invited to consider the advisability of carrying out the suggestion contained in paragraph 96 of the Despatch of 1854, namely, of making some educational qualification necessary to the confirmation of hereditary village officers, such as Patels and Lambardars.

22. That night-schools be encouraged wherever practicable,

23. That as much elasticity as possible be permitted both as regards the hours of the day and the seasons of the year during which the attendance of scholars is required, especially in agricultural villages and in backward Districts.

24. That primary education be extended in backward Districts, especially in those inhabited mainly by aboriginal races, by the instrumentality of the Department pending the creation of school-boards, or by specially liberal grants-in-aid to those who are willing to set up and maintain schools.

25. That all primary schools wholly maintained at the cost of the school-boards, and all primary schools that are aided from the same fund and are not registered as special schools, be understood to be open to all castes and classes of the community.

26. That such a proportion between special and other primary schools be maintained in each school-district as to ensure a proportionate provision for the education of all castes.

27. That assistance be given to schools and orphanages in which poor

children are taught reading, writing, and counting, with or without manual work.

28. That primary education be declared to be that part of the whole system of Public Instruction, which possesses an almost exclusive claim on local funds set apart for education, and a large claim on provincial revenues.

29. That both Municipal and Local Boards keep a separate school-fund.

30. That the Municipal school-fund consist of—

- (a) a fair proportion of Municipal revenues, to be fixed in each case by the Local Government;
- (b) the fees levied in schools wholly maintained at the cost of the Municipal school-fund;
- (c) any assignment that may be made to the Municipal school-fund from the Local Fund;
- (d) any assignment from Provincial Funds;
- (e) any other funds that may be entrusted to the Municipalities for the promotion of education;
- (f) any unexpended balance of the school-fund from previous years.

31. That the Local board's school-fund consist of—

- (a) a distinct share of the general Local Fund, which share shall not be less than a minimum proportion to be prescribed for each Province;
- (b) the fees levied in schools wholly maintained at the cost of the school-fund;
- (c) any contribution that may be assigned by Municipal Boards;
- (d) any assignment made from Provincial Funds;
- (e) any other funds that may be entrusted to the Local Boards for the promotion of education;
- (f) any unexpended balance of the school-fund from previous years.

32. That the general control over primary school-expenditure be vested in the school-boards, whether Municipal or Local, which may now exist or may hereafter be created for self-government in each Province.

33. That the first appointment of schoolmasters in Municipal or Local board-schools be left to the town or District boards, with the proviso that the masters be certificated or approved by the Department, and their subsequent promotion or removal be regulated by the boards, subject to the approval of the Department.

34. That the cost of maintaining or aiding primary schools in each school-district, and the construction and repair of board school-houses, be charged against the Municipal or Local Board school-fund so created.

35. That the vernacular, in which instruction shall be imparted in any primary school, maintained by any Municipal or Local Board, be determined by the school committee of management, subject to revision by the Municipal or Local Board: provided that if there be any dissenting minority in the community, who represent a number of pupils sufficient to form one or more separate classes or schools, it shall be incumbent on the Department to provide for the establishment of such classes or schools, and it shall be incumbent on such Municipal or Local Board to assign to such classes or schools a fair proportion of the whole assignable funds.

36. That Municipal and Local boards administering funds in aid of primary schools adopt the rules prescribed by the Department for aiding such schools, and introduce no change therein without the sanction of the Department.

67T-(3) .—*Recommendations on Secondary Education,*

1. That in the upper classes of high, schools there be two divisions,—one leading to the Entrance examination of the Universities, the other of a more practical character, intended to fit youths for commercial or other non-literary pursuits.

2. That when the proposed bifurcation in secondary schools is carried out, the certificate of having passed by the final standard, or, if necessary, by any lower standard, of either of the proposed alternative courses, be accepted as a sufficient general test of fitness for the public service.

3. That high and middle schools be united in the returns under the single term “secondary schools,” and that the classification of students in secondary schools be provided for in a separate Table, showing the stage of instruction, whether primary, middle, or upper, of pupils in all schools of primary and secondary education.

4. That a small annual grant be made for the formation and maintenance of libraries in all high schools.

5. That the Grant-in-aid Code of each Province include provision for giving help to school-managers in the renewal, and, if necessary, the increase, of their furniture and apparatus of instruction after stated intervals.

6. That an examination in the principles and practice of teaching be instituted, success in which should hereafter be a condition of permanent employment as a teacher in any secondary school, Government or aided.

7. That graduates wishing to attend a course of instruction in a Normal school in the principles and practice of teaching be required to undergo a shorter course of training than others.

8. That the claims of efficient and successful teachers in aided schools be considered in making appointments to posts in the service of Government, and that in cases duly certified by the Education Department the 25 years* rule be relaxed.

9. That the Director of Public Instruction, in consultation with the managers of schools receiving aid from Government, determine the scale of fees to be charged and the proportion of pupils to be exempted from payment therein.

10. That, in order to encourage the establishment of aided schools, the managers be not required to charge fees as high as those of a neighbouring Government school of the same class.

11. That scholarship-holders as such be not exempted from payment of the ordinary fees.

12. That in all Provinces the system of scholarships be so arranged that, as suggested in the Despatch of 1854, they may form connecting links between the different grades of institutions.

13. That scholarships payable from public funds, including educational endowments not attached to a particular institution, be awarded after public competition, without restriction, except in special cases, to students from any particular class of schools.

14. That scholarships gained in open competition be tenable, under proper

safeguards to ensure the progress of the scholarship-holder, at any approved institution for general or special instruction.

15. That the attention of the Government of Bombay be invited to the fact that, while the Despatch of 1854 provides for the creation of both free and stipendiary scholarships tenable in Government and private schools alike, almost exclusive stress is now laid in that Presidency upon free studentships, and that stipendiary scholarships are confined to students of Government schools.

16. That the Government of Madras be invited to consider the necessity of revising the system of scholarships in secondary schools in that Presidency, with a view to bringing it into harmony with the provisions of the Despatch of 1854.

17. That in the conduct of all departmental examinations, managers and teachers of the various non-Government schools be associated, as far as possible, with the officers of the Department.

18. That, in order to secure the efficiency of departmental examinations, examiners, whether officials or non-officials, be remunerated from the fees levied from candidates, increased, when necessary, by a grant from Government.

19. That the importance of requiring inspecting officers to see that the teaching and discipline of every school are such as to exert a right influence on the manners, the conduct, and the character of pupils be re-affirmed.

20. That continuous instruction in school without a break do not extend, as a rule, beyond three hours.

21. That in the Punjab the course in Persian of high schools do not extend beyond the standard of the Entrance examination.

22. That promotions from class to class be left entirely to the discretion of the school authorities.

23. That it be distinctly laid down that the relation of the State to secondary is different from its relation to primary education, in that the means of primary education may be provided without regard to the existence of local co-operation, while it is ordinarily expedient to provide the means of secondary education only where adequate local co-operation is forthcoming; and that therefore, in all ordinary cases, secondary schools for instruction in English be hereafter established by the State preferably on the footing of the system of grants-in-aid.

678.- (4) *—Recommendations on Collegiate Education.

1. That the attention of the Local Governments be invited to the recommendations made in the several Provincial Reports with regard to providing or extending the means of collegiate education in the Province of Sindh and at Ahmedabad in Bombay, at Bhagulpur in Bengal, and at Jabalpur in the Central Provinces; and also to the question of the establishment of an aided college at Delhi under native management.

2. That the rate of aid to each college be determined by the strength of the staff, the expenditure on its maintenance, the efficiency of the institution, and the wants of the locality.

3. That provision be made for special grants to aided colleges, whenever necessary, for the supply and renewal of buildings, furniture, libraries, and other apparatus of instruction.

4* That in order to secure a due succession of competent officers in the

Education Department, the period of necessary service qualifying for pension should be reduced, and that a graduated scale of pensions based on length of service, and obtainable without medical certificate, should be introduced.

5. That Indian graduates, especially those who have also graduated in European Universities, be more largely employed than they have hitherto been in the colleges maintained by Government.

6. That in order to encourage diversity of culture, both on the literary and on the physical side, it is desirable, in all the larger colleges, Government and aided, to make provision for more than one of the alternative courses laid down by the Universities.

7. That the discretionary power of Principals of colleges, to admit to certain courses of lectures in special cases students who have not passed the examinations required by the Universities, be affirmed.

8. That an attempt be made to prepare a moral text-book, based upon the fundamental principles of natural religion, such as may be taught in all Government and non-Government colleges.

9. That the Principal or one of the Professors in each Government and aided college deliver to each of the college classes in every session a series of lectures on the duties of a man and a citizen.

10. That while it is desirable to affirm the principle that fees at the highest rate consistent with the undiminished spread of education should be levied in every college aided by the State, no aided college should be required to levy fees at the same rate as that charged in a neighbouring Government college.

11. That no college, Government or aided, be allowed to receive more than a certain proportion of free students; the proportion to be fixed by the Department, in communication, where necessary, with the managers.

12. That to secure regularity of attendance at colleges, the principle be affirmed that fees, though levied monthly for the convenience of students, are to be regarded as payments for a term, and that a student has no right to a certificate from his college for any term until the whole fee for that term is paid.

13. That as the fees in the Presidency College of Madras are considerably lower than those which it is found practicable to levy in the Presidency Colleges of Calcutta and Bombay, the Government of Madras be invited to consider the advisability of enhancing the rate of fees in that college.

14. That the Local Governments and Administrations be invited to consider whether it is necessary to assign for scholarships tenable in Arts colleges a larger proportion of the provincial grant for education than 2 per cent.

15. That scholarship-holders as such be not exempted from payment of the ordinary fees.

16. That the Local Governments be invited to consider the advisability of appropriating, where necessary, a certain sum for the establishment for scholarships tenable by graduates reading for the M.A. degree*

17. That the Local Governments be invited to consider the advisability of establishing scholarships for distinguished graduates to enable them to proceed to Europe for the purpose of practically studying some branch of mechanical industry.

18. That in place of the system existing in Madras, according to which the first twenty students at the University Entrance and 3^d.A. examinations are allowed to read free in any Government college, liberal provision be made

for a system of scholarships open to general competition and tenable in any college.

19. That the Government of Bombay be requested to consider whether all or some of the scholarships now restricted to the Elphinstone and Deccan Colleges may, with due regard to the circumstances under which they were originally founded, be made tenable at any affiliated college and that if these scholarships cannot fairly be opened to general competition, they be awarded as far as possible to poor students who, but for the stipends, would be unable to continue their studies at college.

679. (5).—*Recommendations on the Internal Administration of the Education Department.*

1. That when an educational officer enters the higher graded service of the Education Department, his promotion should not involve any loss of pay.

2. That conferences (1) of officers of the Education Department, and (2) of such officers with managers of aided and unaided schools, be held from time to time for the discussion of questions affecting education, the Director of Public Instruction being in each case *ex-officio* President of the conference. Also that Deputy Inspectors occasionally hold local meetings of the schoolmasters subordinate to them for the discussion of questions of school management.

3. That a general educational library and museum be formed at some suitable locality in each Province, and that encouragement be given to school-papers or magazines conducted in the vernacular.

4. That managers of schools in competition be invited by the Department to agree to rules providing, as far as the circumstances of the locality allow, (1) that, except at specified times, a pupil of one school be not admitted to another without a certificate from his previous school; (2) that any fees due to that school have been paid; and (3) that he do not obtain promotion into a higher class by changing his school.

5. That it be an instruction to the Department in the various Provinces to aim at raising fees gradually, cautiously, and with due regard to necessary exemptions, up to the highest amount that will not check the spread of education, especially in colleges, secondary schools, and primary schools in towns where the value of education is understood.

6. That the Education Department in each Province limit its calls for returns, (1) to such as the Government may require, and (2) to such others as are indispensable for information and control.

7. That all schools managed by the Department, or by Committees exercising statutory powers, and all other schools that are regularly aided or inspected, or that regularly send pupils to the examinations of the University or of the Department (other than examinations which are conducted by the Department for admission to the public service), be classed as public schools, and sub-divided into departmental, aided, and unaided; (2) that all other schools furnishing returns to the Department be classed as private schools; and (3) that all other details of classification be referred to the Statistical Committee appointed by the Government of India.

8. That no attempt be made to furnish financial returns for private schools.

9* That native and other local energy be relied upon to foster and manage

all education as far as possible, but that the results must be tested by departmental agency, and that therefore the inspecting staff be increased so as to be adequate to the requirements of each Province.

10. That the remuneration of subordinate inspecting officers be reconsidered in each Province with, due regard to their enhanced duties and responsibilities.

11. That, as a general rule, transfers of officers from Professorships of colleges to Inspectorships of schools, and *vice vend*, be not made.

12. That it be distinctly laid down that, native gentlemen of approved qualifications be eligible for the post of Inspector of Schools, and that they be employed in that capacity more commonly than has been the case hitherto.

13. That Inspectresses be employed where necessary for the general supervision of Government, aided, and other girls' schools desiring inspection.

14. That in every Province a Code be drawn up for the guidance of Inspecting Officers.

15. That it be recognised as the duty of the Revenue Officers to visit the schools within their jurisdiction, communicating to the Executive Officers or Board to which, each school is subordinate any recommendations which they may desire to make.

16. That voluntary inspection by officers of Government and private persons be encouraged, in addition to the regular inspection of departmental and Revenue Officers.

17. That the detailed examination of scholars in primary schools be chiefly entrusted to the Deputy Inspectors and their assistants, and that the main duty of the Inspectors in connection with such schools be to visit them, to examine into the way in which they are conducted, and to endeavour to secure the cordial support of the people in the promotion of primary education.

18. That the general upper and lower primary school examinations be not compulsory, but that the annual reports show the number of scholars in each stage of education.

19. That in every Province in which examinations for the public service are held, they be so arranged as to give encouragement to vernacular education.

20. That the Committees appointed to conduct the public service examinations and other examinations of a similar kind include representatives of non-Government schools as well as departmental officers.

21. That Normal schools, Government or aided, for teachers of secondary schools be encouraged.

22. That the Text-book Committees in the several Provinces include qualified persons of different sections of the community not connected with the Department, and that to these Committees should be submitted all text-books, both English and vernacular, that it is proposed to introduce into schools, and all text-books now in use that may seem to need revision.

23. That the Text-book Committees of the several Provinces act as far as possible in concert, and that they communicate to each other lists of English text-books, and, in the case of those Provinces which have any common language, lists of vernacular textbooks, which are satisfactory, and of books which they consider to be wanting or inadequate.

24. That the operations of the existing Government depôts be confined

as soon as may be practicable to the supply and distribution of vernacular text-books.

25. That *care be* taken to avoid, as far as possible, the introduction of text-books which are of an aggressive character, or are likely to give unnecessary offence to any section of the community.

26. That in the printing of text-books, especially vernacular text-books, attention be paid to clearness of typography.

680. (6).—*Recommendations on the External Relations of the Department.*

1. That teachers in non-Government institutions be allowed to present themselves for examination for any grade of certificate required by the grant-in-aid rules without being compelled to attend a Normal school.

2. That in any statement of expenditure required by the grant-in-aid rules from colleges whose Professors are prevented from receiving fixed salaries by the constitution of the religious societies to which they belong, the expenditure on the maintenance of such colleges be calculated at the rates current in aided institutions of the same general character.

3. That in schools aided on the result-system, variety in the course of instruction be encouraged by grants for special subjects,

4. That greater latitude be given to the managers of aided schools in fixing the course of instruction and the medium through which it is conveyed,

5. That the payment-by-results system be not applied to colleges.

6. That every application for a grant-in-aid receive an official reply, and in case of refusal that the reasons for such refusal be given,

7. That the proximity of a Government or of an aided school be not regarded as of itself a sufficient reason for refusing aid to a non-Government school.

8. That with the object of rendering assistance to schools in the form best suited to the circumstances of each Province and thus to call forth the largest amount of local co-operation, the grant-in-aid rules be revised by the Local Governments in concert with the managers of schools.

9. That, in this revision, the rules be so defined as to avoid any ambiguity as to the amount and duration of the aid to which an institution may be entitled, the conditions of grants for buildings, apparatus, and furniture being clearly stated; and that special reference be had to the complaints that have been made against existing systems, particularly the complaints dwelt upon in this Report.

10. That whilst existing State institutions of the higher order should be maintained in complete efficiency wherever they are necessary, the improvement and extension of institutions under private management be the principal care of the Department.

11. That, in ordinary circumstances, the further extension of secondary education in any District be left to the operation of the grant-in-aid system, as soon as that District is provided with an efficient high school, Government or other, along with its necessary feeders.

12. That it be a general principle that the grant-in-aid should depend—

ia)^{o11} locality, *i.e.*, that larger proportionate grants be given to schools in backward Districts;

(#) on the class of institutions, *i.e.*, that greater proportionate aid be given to those in which a large amount of self-support cannot be expected, *e.g.*, girls' schools and schools for lower castes and backward races,

13. That the following be adopted as general principles to regulate the amount of grants-in-aid except in cases in which Recommendations for special aid have been made:—

(a) That no grant be given to an institution which has become self-supporting by means of fees, and which needs no further development to meet the wants of the locality.

(b) That the amount of State aid (exclusive of scholarships from public funds) do not exceed one-half of the entire expenditure on an institution.

(c) That, as a general rule, this maximum rate of aid be given only to girls* schools, primary schools, and Normal schools.

14. That with a view to secure the co-operation of Government and non-Government institutions, the managers of the latter be consulted on matters of general educational interest, and that their students be admitted on equal terms to competition for certificates, scholarships, and other public distinctions.

15. That the Government of Bombay be invited to consider the propriety of converting the Dakshina fellowships into University fellowships with definite duties attached to them, to be tenable for a term of years and open to all candidates irrespective of the college in which they have been trained.

16. That in Bengal the payment from the Mohsin Fund of ~~two-thirds~~ of the fees of Muhammadan students, now confined to Government schools, be extended to Muhammadan students of non-Government schools ~~approved by~~ the Department.

17. That grants be paid without delay when they become due according to the rules.

18. That care be taken lest public examinations become the means of practically imposing the same text-books or curriculum on all schools.

19. That the revised rules for grants-in-aid and any subsequent alterations made in them be not merely published in the official gazettes, but translated into the vernacular, and communicated to the press, to the managers of aided and private institutions, and to all who are likely to help in any way in the spread of education.

20. That the further extension of female education be preferentially promoted by affording liberal aid and encouragement to managers who show their personal interest in the work, and only when such agency is not available by the establishment of schools under the management of the Department or of Local or Municipal Boards.

21. That a periodically increasing provision be made in the educational budget of each Province for the expansion of aided institutions.

22. That when any school or class of schools under departmental management is transferred to a Local or Municipal Board the functions of such board be clearly defined, and that, as a general rule, its powers include (a) the appointment of teachers qualified under the rules of the Department, (b) the reduction or dismissal of such teachers, subject to the approval of the Department, (c) the selection of the standard and course of instruction subject to the control of the Department, and (d) the determination of rates of fees and of the proportion of free students, subject to the general rules in force.

23. That if in any Province the management of Government schools of secondary instruction be transferred either to Municipalities or to Local Boards, or to Committees appointed by those bodies, encouragement be given to the subsequent transfer of the schools concerned to the management of associations of private persons combining locally with that object, provided they are able to afford adequate guarantees of permanence and efficiency.

24. That when Local and Municipal Boards have the charge of aiding schools, (1) their powers and duties be clearly defined; (2) that it be declared to be an important part of their duty to make provision for the primary education of the children of the poor; (3) that precautions be taken to secure that any assignment to them from public funds for purposes of education be impartially administered; (4) that an appeal against any refusal of aid lie to the Department.

25. That the system of grants-in-aid be based as hitherto, in accordance with paragraph 53 of the Despatch of 1854, on an entire abstinence from interference with the religious instruction conveyed in the institution assisted: provided that when the only institution of any particular grade existing in any town or village is an institution in which religious instruction forms a part of the ordinary course, it shall be open to parents to withdraw their children from attendance at such instruction without forfeiting any of the benefits of the institution.

26. That a parent be understood to consent to his child's passing through the full curriculum of the school, unless his intention to withdraw him from religious instruction be intimated at the time of the child's first entering the school, or at the beginning of a subsequent term.

27. That in order to evoke and stimulate local co-operation in the transfer to private management of Government institutions for collegiate or secondary instruction, aid at specially liberal rates be offered for a term of years, wherever necessary, to any local body willing to undertake the management of any such institution under adequate guarantees of permanence and efficiency.

28. That in the event of any Government school or college being transferred to local management, provision be also made for the legal transfer to the new managers of all educational endowments, buildings and other property belonging to such institutions in the hands of Government.

29. That in the event of any Government school or college being transferred to local management, the incumbents of offices under Government be secured in the enjoyment of all their existing rights and privileges.

30. That all Directors of Public Instruction aim at the gradual transfer to local native management of Government schools of secondary instruction (including schools attached to first or second grade colleges), in every case in which the transfer can be effected without lowering the standard, or diminishing the supply, of education, and without endangering the permanence of the institution transferred.

31. That the fact that any school raises more than 60 per cent, of its entire expenditure from fees be taken as affording a presumption that the transfer of such school to local management can be safely effected.

32. That in dealing with the question of the withdrawal of Government from the management of existing colleges, these colleges be regarded as divided
^ classes, *viz.*

(t.) Those from which it is premature for Government to consider the propriety of withdrawal; on the ground that they are, and will

long continue to be, the institutions- on which the higher education of the country mainly depends.

- (2) Those that might be transferred with advantage, as a measure promising useful political results, to bodies of native gentlemen, provided the new managers give satisfactory guarantees that the college will be maintained (1) permanently, (2) in full efficiency, (3) in such a way as to make it adequate for all the wants of the locality.
- (3) Those which have been shown to be unsuccessful, or of which the cost is out of proportion to the utility, and from which Government might advantageously withdraw even with less stringent guarantees for permanent efficiency. Such colleges should be closed if, after due notice, no local body be formed to carry them on with such a grant-in-aid as the rules provide.

33. That the Government of Madras be requested to consider the propriety of dealing with the second grade Government colleges of that Province on the principles applicable to the second or third class as may be deemed advisable in each case, in the light of the recommendations made by the Madras Provincial Committee.

34. That the Government of Bombay be requested to consider the propriety of raising the Ahmedabad College to one teaching up to the B.A. standard, and of securing its full efficiency for a term of years, on the condition that after that period it be treated on the principles applicable to the second class.

35. That the Government of Bengal be requested to consider the propriety of dealing with the Rajshahye and Krishnagar Government Colleges on the principles applicable to the second class, and with the Colleges at Berhampur, Midnapur, and Chittagong on the principles applicable to the third class, as suggested by the Bengal Provincial Committee.

36. That the bestowal of patronage in Government appointments be so ordered as to offer greater encouragement to high education.

681. oo .«—*JRecommendations regarding classes requiring special treatment.*

a.'—The sons of Native Chiefs and 'Noblemen.

1. That Local Governments be invited to consider the question of establishing special colleges or schools for the sons and relations of Native Chiefs and noblemen, where such institutions do not now exist.
2. That Local Governments be invited to consider the advisability of entrusting the education of Wards of Court to the joint supervision of the district authorities and the Educational Inspectors.

b.—Muhammadan.*

1. That the special encouragement of Muhammadan education be regarded as a legitimate charge on Local, on Municipal, and on Provincial Funds.
2. That indigenous Muhammadan schools be liberally encouraged to add purely secular subjects to their curriculum of instruction.
3. That special standards for Muhammadan primary schools be prescribed.
4. That Hindustani be the principal medium for imparting instruction to Muhammadans in primary and middle schools, except in localities where the Muhammadan community desire that some other language be adopted.
5. That the official vernacular, in places where it is not Hindustani, be added, as a voluntary subject, to the curriculum of primary and middle schools for Muhammadans maintained from public funds ; and that arithmetic- and accounts be taught through the medium of that vernacular.

6. That, in localities where Muhammadans form a fair proportion of the population, provision be made in middle and high schools maintained from public funds for imparting instruction in the Hindustani and Persian languages.

7. That higher English education for Muhammadans, being the kind of education in which that community needs special help, be liberally encouraged.

8. That, where necessary, a graduated system of special scholarships for Muhammadans be established,—to be awarded,—

(a) In primary schools, and tenable in middle schools.

(b) In middle schools, and tenable in high schools.

(c) On the results of the Matriculation and First Arts examinations and tenable in colleges.

9. That, in all classes of schools maintained from public funds, a certain proportion of free studentships be expressly reserved for **Muhammadan** students.

10. That, in places where educational endowments for the benefit of Muhammadans exist, and are under the management of Government, the funds arising from such endowments be devoted to the advancement of education among Muhammadans exclusively.

11. That, where Muhammadan endowments exist, and are under the management of private individuals or bodies, inducements by liberal grants-in-aid be offered to them, to establish English-teaching schools or colleges on the grant-in-aid system.

12. That, where necessary, Normal schools or classes for the training of Muhammadan teachers be established.

13. That, wherever instruction is given in Muhammadan schools through the medium of Hindustani, endeavours be made to secure, as far as possible, Muhammadan teachers to give such instruction.

14. That Muhammadan Inspecting Officers be employed more largely than hitherto for the inspection of primary schools for Muhammadans.

15. That Associations for the promotion of Muhammadan education be recognised and encouraged.

16. That in the annual Reports on public instruction a special section be devoted to Muhammadan education.

17. That the attention of the Local Governments be invited to the question of the proportion in which patronage is distributed among educated Muhammadans and others.

18. That the principles embodied in the Recommendations given above be equally applicable to any other races with similar antecedents, whose education is on the same level as that of the Muhammadans.

c.—Aboriginal Tribes.

1. That children of aboriginal tribes be exempted wherever necessary from payment of fees, over and above any general exemptions otherwise provided for.

2. That, if necessary, extra allowances be given under the result system for boys of aboriginal tribes taught in ordinary schools.

3. That when children of aboriginal tribes are found sufficiently instructed to become schoolmasters among their own people, attempts be made to establish them in schools within the borders of the tribes.

4— That if any bodies be willing to undertake the work of education among aboriginal tribes, they be liberally assisted on the basis of abstention from any interference with any religious teaching.

5. That where the language of the tribe has not been reduced to writing, or is otherwise unsuitable, the medium of instruction be the vernacular of the neighbouring population, with whom the aboriginal people most often come in contact.

6. That, where the education of such tribes is carried on in their own vernacular, the vernacular of the neighbouring District be an additional subject of instruction where this is found advisable.

d.—Low castes.

1. That the principle laid down in the Court of Directors' letter of May 5th, 1854, and again in their reply to the letter of the Government of India, dated May 20th, 1857, that "no boy be refused admission to a Government ** college or school merely on the ground of caste " and repeated by the Secretary of State in 1863, be now re-affirmed as a principle, and be applied with due caution to every institution not reserved for special races, which is wholly maintained at the cost of public funds, whether Provincial, Municipal, or Local.

2. That the establishment of special schools or classes for children of low caste be liberally encouraged in places where there is a sufficient number of such children to form separate schools or classes, and where the schools maintained from public funds do not sufficiently provide for their education.

682. (<?)•—Recommendations on Female Education*

1. That female education be treated as a legitimate charge alike on Local, on Municipal, and on Provincial Funds, and receive special encouragement.

2. That all female schools or orphanages, whether on a religious basis or not, be eligible for aid so far as they produce any secular results, such as a knowledge of reading or of writing.

3. That the conditions of aid to girls' schools be easier than to boys* schools, and the rates higher—more especially in the case of those established for poor or for low-caste girls.

4. That the rules for grants be so framed as to allow for the fact that girls' schools generally contain a large proportion of beginners, and of those who cannot attend school for so many hours a day, or with such regularity' as boys,

5. That the standards of instruction for primary girls* schools be simpler than those for boys' schools, and be drawn up with special reference to the requirements of home life, and to the occupations open to *women*.

6. That the greatest care be exercised in the selection of suitable text-books for girls' schools, and that the preparation for such books be encouraged.

7. That, while fees be levied where practicable, no girls' school be debarred from a grant on account of its not levying fees.

8. That special provision be made for girls* scholarships, to be awarded after examination, and that, with a view to encouraging girls to remain longer at school, a certain proportion of them be reserved for girls not under twelve years of age.

9. That liberal aid be offered for the establishment, in suitable localities, of girls^s schools in which English should be taught in addition to the vernacular.

10. That special aid be given, where necessary, to girls' schools that make provision for boarders,

ix. That the Department of Public Instruction be requested to arrange, in concert with managers of girls' schools, for the revision of the Code of Rules for grants-in-aid in accordance with the above Recommendations.

12. That, as mixed schools, other than infant schools, are not generally-suited to the conditions of this country, the attendance of girls at boys' schools be not encouraged, except in places where girls' schools cannot be maintained.

13. That the establishment of infant schools or classes, under schoolmistresses, be liberally encouraged.

14. That female schools be not placed under the management of Local Boards or of Municipalities unless they express a wish to take charge of them.

15. That the first appointment of schoolmistresses in girls' schools under the management of Municipal or Local Boards be left to such boards, with the proviso that the mistress be either certificated, or approved by the Department: and that subsequent promotion or removal be regulated by the boards, subject to the approval of the Department.

16. That rules be framed to promote the gradual supersession of male by female teachers in all girls' schools.

17. That, in schools under female teachers, stipendiary pupil-teacherships be generally encouraged.

18. That the attention of Local Governments be invited to the question of establishing additional Normal schools or classes; and that those under private management receive liberal aid, part of which might take the form of a bonus for every pupil passing the certificate examination.

19. That the departmental certificate examinations for teachers be open to all candidates, wherever prepared.

20. That teachers in schools for general education be encouraged by special rewards to prepare pupils for examinations for teachers' certificates, and that girls be encouraged by the offer of prizes to qualify for such certificates.

21. That liberal inducements be offered to the wives of schoolmasters to qualify as teachers, and that in suitable cases widows be trained as schoolmistresses, care being taken to provide them with sufficient protection in the places where they are to be employed as teachers.

22. That, in Districts where European or Eurasian young women are required as teachers in native schools, special encouragement be given to them to qualify in a vernacular language.

23. That grants for zanana teaching be recognised as a proper charge on public funds and be given under rules which will enable the agencies engaged in that work to obtain substantial aid for such secular teaching as may be tested by an Inspectress or other female agency.

24. That Associations for the promotion of female education by examinations or otherwise be recognised by the Department, and encouraged by grants under suitable conditions.

25. That female inspecting agency be regarded as essential to the full development of female education, and be more largely employed than hitherto.

26. That an alternative subject in examinations suitable for girls be established, corresponding in standard to the Matriculation examination, but having no relation to any existing University course.

27. That endeavours be made to secure the services of native gentlemen interested in female education on Committees for the supervision of girls' schools, and that European and Native ladies be also invited to assist such Committees.

683. (9) •—*Recommendations as to Legislation.*

1. That the duties of Municipal and Local Boards in controlling or assisting schools under their supervision be regulated by local enactments suited to the circumstances of each Province.

2. That the area of any Municipal or rural unit of Local Self-Government that may now or hereafter exist be declared to be a school-district, and school-boards be established for the management and control of schools placed under their jurisdiction in each such district.

3. That the control of each school-board over all schools within the said school-district be subject to the following provisions:—

- (a) that it be open to the Local Government to exclude any school, or any class of schools, other than schools of primary instruction for boys, from the control of such school-board;
- (j) that any school which is situated in the said school-district, and which receives no assistance either from the board or the Department, continue, if the managers so desire it, to be independent of the control of the school-board ;
- (o) that the managers of any institution which receives aid either from the board or the Department continue to exercise in regard to such institution full powers of management subject to such limitations as the Local Government may from time to time impose as a condition of receiving aid ;
- (d) that the school-board may delegate to any body appointed by itself or subordinate to it any duties in regard to any school or class of institutions under its control which it thinks fit so to delegate.

4. That the Local Government declare from time to time what funds constituting a school-fund shall be vested in any school-board for educational purposes, and what proportion of such school-fund shall be assigned to any class of education.

5. That it be the duty of every school-board :—

- (a) to prepare an annual budget of its income and expenditure;
- (&) to determine what schools shall be wholly maintained at the cost of the school-fund, what schools are eligible for grants-in-aid, and which of them shall receive aid;
- (o) to keep a register of all schools, whether maintained at the cost of public funds, or aided or unaided, which are situated in its school-district;
- (d) to construct and repair school-houses or to grant aid towards their construction or repair;
- (<?) generally to carry out any other of the objects indicated in the various recommendations of the Commission, which in the opinion of the Local Government can best be secured by legislative enactment, or by rules made under the Act.

6. That the appointment, reduction of salary, or dismissal, of teachers in schools maintained by the board be left to the school-board; provided that the said board shall be guided in its appointments by any rules as to qualifications which may be laid down from time to time by the Department; and provided that an appeal shall lie to the Department against any order of dismissal or reduction of salary.

7. That an appeal lie to the Department against any order of a board in regard to such matters as the Local Government shall specify.

8. That every school-board be required to submit to the Local Government through the Department an annual report of its administration, together with its accounts of income and expenditure, in such form and on such date as shall be prescribed by the Local Government; and thereon the Local Government declare whether the existing supply of schools of any class, of which the supervision has been entrusted to such board, is sufficient to secure

adequate proportionate provision for the education of all classes of the community ; and in the event of the said Government declaring that the supply is insufficient, it determine from what sources and in what manner the necessary provision of schools shall be made,

9. That it be incumbent upon every Local Government or Administration to frame a Code of rules for regulating the conduct of education by Municipal and Local Boards in the Provinces subject to such Local Government or Administration.

10. That such Code shall define and regulate—

- (a) the internal mechanism of the Education Department in regard to direction, inspection, and teaching ;
- (b) the external relations of the Department to private individuals and public bodies engaged in the work of education ;
- (c) the scope, functions, and rules of the system of grants-in-aid;
- (d) the character of any special measures for the education of classes requiring exceptional treatment;
- (e) the scope and divisions of the annual report upon the progress of public instruction, together with the necessary forms of returns,

11. That power be reserved to the Local Government from time to time to add to, cancel, or modify the provisions of the said Code.

12. That the Code be annually published in the official Gazette in such a form as to show separately all articles which have been cancelled or modified and all new articles which have been introduced since the publication of the last edition.

(Signed) W. W. HUNTER, *President*.

D. M. BARBOUR.

„ W. R. BLACKETT.

ANANDA MOHAN BOSE,

C. A. R. BROWNING.

A. W. CROET.

K DEIGHTON.

J. T. EOWLER.

HAJI GHULAM HASSAN.

A. P. HOWELL.

H. P. JACOB.

A. JEAN.

W. LEE-W*ARNER.

SAYYID MAHMUD.

W. MILLER.

BHUDEB MOOKERJEA.

P. RANGANADA MUDALIYAR.

C. PEARSON.

KASHINATH TRIMBAK TELANG.

JOTENDRA MOHUN TAGORE.

G. E. WARD.

The 14th September 1883,

DISSENTS AND MINUTES

RECORDED BY

MEMBERS OF THE COMMISSION.

i.

*Dissent recorded by the Honourable JBhudeb Mookerjee, G.I.E.**

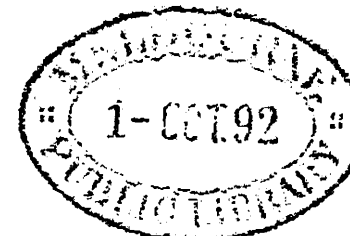
I do not admit that indigenous education was weak in Bombay. I do not admit that the Department of Public Instruction was unfavourable to private managers in Madras.

A clear distinction should be made between "indigenous⁵⁵ and "extra-neous⁹⁹ (such as missionary) "private effort/'

The experience of my whole life tells me that in the management of primary education, District Officers and Government are apt to commit blunders. The centralisation of funds in their hands injures indigenous education.

As regards that portion of the Commission's Report which relates to Bengal, I should state, in brief, that I differ from it on all points where it differs from the Bengal Provincial Report in its historical view of the past, or in its suggestions for the future.

Chiksetrah,
12th September 2883.



II.

Dissent recorded by the Rev. Dr. Jean> S.J.

I dissent from Section 10 of Chapter VIII, chiefly because no limit is put therein to the withdrawal of Government from its institutions, even from the highest. Such a limit, I consider, will be always necessary. I consider, moreover, the tenor and the tendency of this section to be out of keeping with Section I of the same chapter, which had the unanimous approval of the Commission when still sitting in Calcutta.

ST. JOSEPH'S COLLEGE,
TiuCBrfoPOLr,
10th September 1883.

III.

Minute recorded by D. Barbour, Esq.

1. The Report of the Education Commission is, necessarily, based on the recommendations of the majority of the Members of the Commission.

In any case in which a minority may have dissented, the fact of the dissent is, as a rule, recorded in the proceedings; but as the pressure of my ordinary duties prevented me from attending the meetings of the Commission, it has come about that there are Recommendations of the Commission to which I am opposed, and in regard to which my dissent is not anywhere recorded.

I have, therefore, thought it best to note briefly the chief Recommendations to which I am opposed; in the circumstances I have not thought it necessary to state the grounds of my opposition at any length.

2. In Chapter V, which deals with Secondary Education, the Commission recommends "that in the upper classes of high schools there be two divisions,—one leading to the Entrance examination of the Universities, the other of a more practical character, intended to fit youths for commercial or other non-literary pursuits."*

In this Recommendation I most cordially concur; but the Commission goes on to recommend that a certificate of having passed in "either of the proposed alternative courses be accepted as a sufficient general test of fitness for the public service/" and to this Recommendation I am strongly opposed. In my opinion, the general test of fitness for the public service should be a certificate of having passed by the final standard of the course which is of the more practical character, intended to fit youths for commercial or other non-literary pursuits."

My experience as head of a large office in Bengal has led me to the conclusion that the adoption of the University Entrance examination as a general standard of education, has had disastrous effects in the case of youths not fitted to rise to a higher position than that of subordinate clerks.

3- In Chapter VI, which deals with Collegiate Education, the Commission recommends a more favourable scale of pensions for officers in the Education Department.

This Recommendation is made solely with reference to the supposed needs of the Department. It takes no account of the additional expenditure which it involves, or of the fact that the adoption of the proposal would furnish a strong argument for the sanction of additional expenditure in other departments of the Government service.

The Recommendation appears to me to be founded on an inadequate appreciation of the whole of the facts, and to be somewhat out of place in the present Report.

4. I object to Recommendation (1) in Chapter VII, "that when an Educational officer enters the higher graded service of the Education Department, his promotion should not involve any loss of pay/"

I object to this Recommendation because it deals with a question of administrative detail not within the scope of the Commission's enquiry, and because a temporary loss of pay may be much more than counterbalanced by an improvement in future prospects of promotion.

I also object to Recommendation (5) in the same chapter, ** that it be an instruction to the departments of the various Provinces to aim at raising fees gradually, cautiously, and with due regard to necessary exemptions, up to the highest amount that will not check the spread of education, especially in colleges, secondary schools, and primary schools in towns where the value of education is understood.⁵⁵ I am of opinion that this Recommendation does not go far enough in the case of colleges. Private expenditure incurred in giving a boy a really good education is a remunerative investment of capital in India, and I am unaware of any good ground for taxing the general community in order to confer wealth and power on a class which is itself almost wholly untaxed.

5. In Chapter VIII the Commission recommends "that the bestowal of patronage in Government appointments be so regulated as to offer greater encouragement to high education.⁵⁵ I cannot say that a Recommendation of this sort may not be necessary in some Provinces, or as regards certain departments ; but I desire to state as the result of my experience, which is necessarily

limited, that high education is already sufficiently encouraged by the bestowal of appointments in the service of Government.

I believe that the best man for an office under Government will often be the man who has received a good education; but the rule is subject to many exceptions, and, after all, the man who has the best claim to an office is not the man who has had the best or most elaborate education, but the man who will best discharge the duties of the office.

6. I have no objection to the Eecommendation made in Chapter IX of the Report, "that Local Governments be invited to consider the question of establishing special colleges or schools for the sons and relations of Native Chiefs and Noblemen where such institutions do not now exist," provided that these institutions are made wholly self-supporting; but I dissent from the Recommendation "that the special encouragement of Muhammadan education be regarded as a legitimate charge on Local, on Municipal, and on Provincial Funds." I do not think it is possible to justify the taxation of the general community for the special benefit of one class.

I also object very strongly to the Recommendation "that, in localities where Muhammadans form a fair proportion of the population, provision be made in middle and high schools maintained from public funds for imparting instruction in the Hindustani and Persian languages/' and my objection is made in the interests of the Muhammadans themselves. If the Muhammadans wish, at their own cost, to encourage the study of Persian, or of Hindustani where it is not the language in ordinary use, every facility should be given to enable them to do so ; but in so far as they do so, they heavily handicap their children in the race of life as compared with boys of other religions, and I therefore think that it is bad policy to spend the public money for the purpose recommended by the Commission.

I can fully appreciate sympathy with the Muhammadans in their present position, but that sympathy should not lead us to do injustice to other classes of the community, and I do not see how it would be possible to justify "a graduated system of special scholarships for Muhammadans,*⁵ or to accept the Recommendation of the Commission "that in all classes of schools *maintained from public funds* a certain proportion of free studentships be expressly reserved for Muhammadan students/' The proposals of the Commission appear to me to be so liberal as regards Muhammadans that they involve injustice to other classes, and their recommendation, "that the attention of the Local Governments be invited to the question of the proportion in which patronage is distributed among educated Muhammadans and others/* appears uncalled for, so long as there is no proof that Muhammadans are treated otherwise than fairly.

Although I have felt bound to make these remarks, I may add that it would, in my judgment, be an unmixed gain if the Muhammadans came forward and qualified themselves to take a larger and more important share in the administration of the country; but the improvement must, and I believe will, come from their own efforts* No attempt to improve their position by protecting them against the competition of other classes can have any permanently beneficial effect.

SIMLA,

24th September 1883.

IV.

Minute recorded by Kashmath Trimbak Telang, Esq.

I concur in so many of the Recommendations contained in this Report, that I have no hesitation whatever in signing it. But after much anxious consideration, I have arrived at the conclusion that, in signing it, I am bound to put separately on record the opinions I have formed on some of the points with which it deals. I am, however, glad to be able to say at the outset, after a careful consideration of the work done by my colleagues who drew up this Report at Simla, that the very arduous duty which devolved upon them has been discharged by them in a manner, on the whole, extremely fair and satisfactory. There are, indeed, sundry statements in the Report to which I cannot give in my adhesion at all, or can do so only with many qualifications. Thus, the statement that the Local cess in Bombay was in its inception purely voluntary, and the passage which speaks of our Land Revenue system in this Presidency as a "liberal" one (*vide* Chap. IV), both involve judgments on non-educational matters which I am not prepared to accept. And again, when the study of Sanskrit in the old Benares College is pronounced to have been "frivolous and uncritical" (Chap. VI), or the provision for college scholarships in Bombay is described as "large" (Chap. VI), or the practical operation of the "grades" system is spoken of as very successful (Chap. VI), we have judgments pronounced on purely educational topics which I cannot concur in without some qualifications. Lastly, to refer to a point which is only partially educational, "unwise enthusiasm" and "the chill courtesies of English reserve" (Chap. VI), are by no means the only drawbacks—the former, indeed, is perhaps the smallest of the drawbacks—to be taken into account in connection with the "intercourse" of the Indian student with "the ruling race;" while, on the other hand, "the pretentious self-assertion" and "the comparative absence of lofty motive" and so forth attributed to the Indian student considered by himself, are, I should say, considerably overstated.* But all such points are now of subordinate importance, and having given this slight indication of them, I propose here to say nothing more about them. I shall pass at once to the "Recommendations contained in this Report, and take them in the order in which they appear there.

And the first Recommendation I wish to notice is the one which lays it down that the Director of Public Instruction should determine the rate of fees to be charged in all schools receiving aid from Government, and the proportion of students to be exempted from payment therein. I confess that I cannot reconcile myself to this Recommendation. The main grounds of my objection to it were stated by me during the debates in Calcutta, and they are summarised in our minutes of proceedings. I shall therefore not repeat them here, but I wish to make one or two observations upon points which have been urged on the other side. It is said, then, that the recommendation carries out the directions of the Despatch of 1854. I cannot accept this view. I cannot accept as correct a construction of that Despatch which says that "some fee, however small" (see para. 54 of the Despatch), means some fee not smaller than a minimum to be fixed by the Director of Public Instruction, and to be from time to time raised by that officer, even although it is to be raised gradually, cautiously, and with due regard to necessary exemptions.³ And I own that I am the less prepared to accept this strained construction of the clause in question, when I find that, while the traditions of my countrymen,

* See the Evidence of Sir W. Wedderburn, p. 2; Hr. Wordsworth, p. 5. and Cf. A. French Eton, pp. 26-7.

be they Hindus, Mussalmans, or Parsis, are decidedly against any such rule as is sought to be laid down, the grounds alleged in favour of it have been shown by the later experience of even European countries to be quite untenable. The evidence as to the facts on this point may be seen collected in Mr. Morley's "Struggle for National Education" pp. 143-5,* while one principal aim of that delightful little work of Mr. Matthew Arnold's, "A French Eton"⁵ was to reduce the cost of secondary education in England (vide *inter alia*, pp. 8, 22, 67, 75). The position, therefore, which I take up is this. On such a point we ought not to consider ourselves bound hand and foot by the provisions of the Despatch of 1854; but if we are so bound, then we ought not to extend its words by construction, and especially ought we not to do so, when we thereby run counter not only to the traditions of the communities for whose benefit the Despatch was intended, but also to the more matured experiences of those countries from whose practice the provisions were originally borrowed. But then it is said that the object of the Despatch was to make education self-supporting, and that that object can only be compassed by the increase of fees. From this reading of the Despatch also I must respectfully express my dissent. The Despatch plainly indicates the wish of its authors that the money of the State should be made to go as far as possible in developing education in this country. And doubtless if an aided school could be made by the State to increase its fee income—not, be it noticed, its fee rate, which is another and quite a different thing—the State would be able to save something out of its grants-in-aid, which could then be applied in developing education in other directions. But this involves a forcing by the State upon private workers in education of its own ideas on a subject which is a peculiarly appropriate field for the exercise of local knowledge and local experience. Such a procedure seems to me to be scarcely in harmony with the principles of the Despatch, or of the recommendations regarding private enterprise which, in pursuance of those principles, the Commission has put forward.

But then it is said that a provision like the one recommended would strengthen the hands of managers of non-Government schools, and prevent one aided school from outbidding another. Put into plain English, this argument seems to me to involve a wish that some favoured institutions—perhaps those first in the field—should be enabled to monopolise the State grant, and new sharers in it should be prevented from rising up in competition. For what will be the operation of such a rule, framed with the objects avowed by its framers? The Director of Public Instruction will consult the managers of schools actually receiving aid from Government, and a minimum rate of fee and a maximum proportion of free studentships will be fixed by their joint wisdom. A school in existence then, but not receiving aid, or a school subsequently started, will both alike be bound by the rule, under penalty of being refused aid by the State, although the managers may never have been consulted about its justice or expediency; or a manager who was consulted and took a different view from the Director would be excluded from the benefit of the State grant or his presumption in differing from that infallible officer. I see nothing that can reconcile me to results like these. It seems to be assumed that reductions of fee below the minimum to be fixed by the Director will often be designed for purposes of mischief and breach of discipline. I maintain that there is no warrant whatever for such an assumption. One great inducement in the past to the opening of schools by my countrymen has been the opportunity thus afforded them for spreading education *cheaply*. I may cite the case of the

* Cf. Report, Education Commission (1861), VI, 156.
 f Cf. Mr. Lethbridge in Journal, National Indian Association (August 1882), p. 440 *et seq.*, and the evidence of Mr. Wordsworth and Mr. Quxham and the Hon^{ble} K. D. Pal and Mr. T&wney.

new English School in Poona as an illustration with which I am most familiar. I hope and believe that the same inducement will continue to be a potent one in future. But if the Recommendation under consideration is put into force, the countervailing influences are sure to be very powerful; they may, perhaps, be too powerful. No doubt one of the representatives of aided institutions in the Commission assured us that managers of aided schools will not look on the Department's action in this matter as at all an interference to be objected to. Probably not. But I am not now particularly concerned for the institutions which are at present receiving aid. I *am* concerned for those which are not but ought to be receiving aid, and those which may be started hereafter and may properly ask for aid, I *am* concerned for those which shall *not* aim at making secondary and higher education as costly as possible, but which shall be started by men who will, within certain limits, act on the traditions to which I have already alluded. It will, I am aware, be objected to this—in fact, it was objected during our debates—that if any one wants to make education a matter of charity and impart it either as an entirely free gift or at a very small cost, he ought not to ask for State aid in doing so. But that objection seems to me to involve a *non-sequitur*. The work done is of a nature which the State has undertaken to help, and therefore has an absolute claim to such help. And a further remark on the objection is that it certainly does not lie in the mouths of those who contend for grants to be given from State funds to that other agency of educational charity—the so-called “proselytising schools.”

But against all this, it is urged that a rule like the one in question has been in successful operation in Madras. I am unable to make out clearly, from the Provincial Report, or from what was said in the course of the debate* whether an aided school, under the existing rules, is liable to have its grant withdrawn if it contravenes an order of the Director on the subject of fees. Apparently it is (see Madras Provincial Report), but only if it receives a salary grant, not a result grant. If so, the example quoted is plainly of limited application. Besides, in such a matter, the mere fact of no complaints having been made for some time by natives of this country is not, to my mind, any proof that the rule is a good one. I think the principle here is wrong; and as to expediency, I cannot but think it highly inexpedient that the State should afford artificial help to institutions not managed by itself, for exacting from students higher fees than they will be able to obtain without such help.

I have only to add one more observation on this point. It will be admitted on all hands that it is useless to lay down a rule when a coach-and-six can be driven through it with ease. And what more easy than that in the case of the rule recommended? A manager has only got to make the appropriate entries on both sides of his accounts, and show an expenditure on account of scholarships precisely equal to the difference between the fees he levies and those he is directed to levy. The rule is then satisfied, and the Department is baffled. And probably this further result will also follow. The manager will be able to return his expenditure on his schools at a figure larger than the real one by this enforced addition, and will, under some systems of grant-in-aid, be able to claim from the State a larger sum for having succeeded in defying the rules made by the State. Thus this laudable endeavour, commenced to make secondary and higher education more self-supporting,—that is to say, more costly to the students,—“will overleap itself and fall on the other side for it will end by becoming more costly, and quite unnecessarily so, not to the student, but to the State. And over and above this, of course, are the demoralising effects, however small in each case, of preparing returns for the State in the objectionable form I have before referred to.

The next point I wish to deal with is that involved in the Recommendation contained in Chapter VI, I cordially agree in that Recommendation. And I hope that the Local Governments concerned will deal in a spirit of liberality with the cases there referred to, and not allow themselves to be influenced by the cry that too much is being spent on higher education in India. With that cry, in the form in which it has been raised, I have no sympathy whatever. I unreservedly accept the view that without mass education the country will never be able to enjoy to the full the fruits which it has a right to expect from the higher education. For that purpose, you must bestow brains, as Mill has it, on those who have only hands. And in my judgment the time has now come when with that view mass education must be pushed onward, or, as it is expressed in the Resolution appointing the Commission, "the different branches of public instruction should, if possible, move forward together." On the other hand, I hold an equally strong opinion that, without the higher education, mass education cannot be of much avail, even if it can be secured. And the argument so often urged, that for the money spent on giving high education to one student, you might give primary education to more than one hundred, is to my mind utterly futile, and unworthy even of a moment's consideration.* "We have nearly all of us," says Mr. Mathew Arnold,† "reached the notion that popular education it is*the State's duty to deal with. Secondary and superior instruction, many of us still think, should be left to take care of themselves." And after pointing out what has been done in European countries on this matter, he winds up thus : "In all these countries the idea of a sound civil organisation of modern society has been found to involve the idea of an organisation of secondary and superior instruction by public authority or by the State." I will not dwell more on this point, but will merely say that in my opinion the whole religious, social, political, and industrial advance of the country depends on the steady adherence to that enlightened policy, as regards high education, which has probably been the most generally approved portion of British Indian policy in the past. This opinion is quite consistent with a desire, which I strongly feel, that all private efforts in education, especially the efforts put forward by my own countrymen, should receive a fair field and due encouragement. But in order that such private effort should be forthcoming in any District, high education must, as a general rule, have been in existence in that District for some time. And therefore I trust that, when the Recommendation under notice comes to be carried out, no embarrassments will be felt by the local authorities in consequence of any *a priori* idea of the superiority of private enterprise over State action,—an idea which, however well founded in many respects, is just now, I fear, likely to be set up as a fetish, and likely to be allowed to dominate in regions which, under present circumstances, at all events, lie entirely beyond its sphere.

I have only one word to add with respect to some of the specific cases enumerated in the Recommendation. The case of the Delhi College appears to me to be a particularly hard one. Subscriptions raised by the natives have been rejected as inadequate, and the College has substantially been made over to a missionary body. On both grounds the matter is worthy of reconsideration. As to the College of Jabalpur, I cannot imagine that there can be two opinions. In regard to Sind, the petition sent by some of the citizens of Karachi was not before us when our Provincial Report was written, and the offer made

spools and Universities on the Continent, p. 275; and *cf.* the statement of Mr. Justice West and the evidence of Mr. Wordsworth, and our minutes of proceedings, pp. 126-7.

f Sir T. Madhavrao, among native gentlemen not examined by the Commission, and the vast majority of the native witnesses examined in all provinces, have taken the view of high education which is here stated. The view of His Highness the Maharaja of Travancore is very well known.

in that petition to contribute something towards endowing a college deserves consideration at the hands of the Government of Bombay. Coming lastly to the Gujarat College, I have nothing to add to what is said in the Provincial Report, save that the period of probation should be such as to give the College a really fair chance of success; and that the Government, if it is to err at all, should err on the side of giving it too long, rather than too short, a period of probation.

I next proceed to consider two Recommendations which deal with a point certainly one of the most important in connection with education. I allude to the Recommendation regarding moral education in colleges. In stating the opinions which I have formed on this point, I know I ran a certain risk of misinterpretation. But I am bound to say that, after the best consideration which I have been able to give to the Recommendations made by the Commission, and the arguments adduced in support of them, I am still strongly of opinion that the proposed measures will be impotent for good and may result in mischief. I will first take up the latter of the two Recommendations referred to. That prescribes that a series of lectures on the duties of a man and a citizen should be delivered in each College in each session. Now, first, what is the object of this new departure—for it is a new departure—in our system of academical instruction? Many of those who recommend this new departure admit that there is nothing in the character of the students of our State Colleges, taken as a class, which can be used in support of this recommendation. Others, however, of the same mode of thinking, have distinctly said that the effects of education in our State Colleges on the morals* of the students has certainly been mischievous, not to say disastrous. One gentleman, who has been particularly active in what I cannot help characterising as the misguided and mischievous agitation which preceded the appointment of the Commission, has held up to the gaze of the British public a picture of the effects of State education in India (see Mr. Johnstone's "Our Educational Policy in India," pages xv, 8, 10, 26), which, if it is a faithful one, would certainly justify some new departure in the direction indicated. But is it a faithful picture? On that we have a statement submitted to the Commission by five gentlemen of the same party as the author of the pamphlet above alluded to. These gentlemen undertake to say that "the result of Government so-called neutrality has been *by common consent* decidedly injurious from a moral and religious point of view." What these gentlemen mean by "common consent" it is not very easy to understand. The evidence before the Commission, (which is summarised in the Report Chapter VI,) is absolutely overwhelming in favour of the reverse of that which these gentlemen describe as admitted by common consent. And I owe it to the system under which I myself and many of my friends have been nurtured, to put it solemnly on record that in my judgment the charges made against that system are wholly and absolutely unsustainable, and are the results of imperfect or prejudiced observation and hasty generalisation put into words by random and often reckless rhetoric. I do not deny that there may be individuals among men of the class to which I have the honour to belong, who have strayed away more or less widely from the path of honor and virtue. But if that fact affords sufficient ground for a condemnation of our system, what system, I would ask, is there under the sun which will not have to be similarly condemned? A considerable portion of the sensational talk that is going about on this subject is, I feel persuaded, due to a misapplication of that unhappy phrase—educated native. That misapplication is referred to upon another point in the Report (see Chap. VIII), but it is necessary to enter a caveat

* Bishop Menrm's statement (page 3) pronounces an unfavourable judgment on our system. His language is very like that used against the University of Paris in days gone by. Cf. Schools and Universities on the Continent by Mr. M- Arnold, page 23.

with regard to it in this connection also. On the one hand, it is confined, and of course quite erroneously, to those who have acquired some knowledge of the English language; and on the other, it is extended, equally erroneously, to those who, like Macaulay's Erenchman, "have just learnt enough English to read Addison with a dictionary." The latter error is the one which must be specially guarded against in discussions like the present.

But it may be said that the new departure, if not justified by the injurious effects of the systems hitherto in vogue, may still be justified on the ground that it is calculated to strengthen the beneficial effects of that system. And here I am prepared to join issue with those who maintain that it will have any such operation. I cordially accept the dictum of Mr. Mathew Arnold that conduct is three-fourths of life, and a man who works for conduct works for more than a man who works for intelligence. And therefore I should be quite willing to join, as indeed I have joined, in any Recommendation encouraging such "work for conduct" (see the Bombay Provincial Report, page 148). But I cannot perceive that "lectures on the duties of a man and a citizen" at a college constitute such "work" at all. In a primary school, lessons on the duties of a man would probably be useful; in a secondary school they would probably be innocuous; but in a collegiate institution they would probably be neither useful nor innocuous. At the earliest stage of a student's life, ignorance of what is right is probably an important force, and then to correct that ignorance, moral lessons are a perfectly appropriate agency, although even here I should be inclined to rely more upon "lessons" like Miss Edgeworth's,* for instance, than on those like the extracts from "The whole Duty of Man" by D. A. Eisdale which were published in Bombay at the American Mission Press in 1841. When the student has advanced to a secondary school, much of the ignorance above referred to has presumably given place to knowledge. But still the habit of analysis and criticism is in a very rudimentary condition, and such lessons will, in all probability, do little harm. But if collegiate education is to subserve one of its most important purposes, and is to cultivate the intelligence so as to enable it to weigh arguments and form independent judgments, then these moral lessons present an entirely different aspect. At that stage, it is almost entirely unnecessary to instruct the intelligence, while it is of great use to discipline the will and to cultivate the feelings. The proposed lectures will, I fear, have little or no effect in this latter direction; while in some individual cases their effect in the former direction, being meant to operate not on the intellect but on conduct, may be the reverse of that which is desired—something like that on the Cambridge scholar, about whom I read many years ago, whose first doubts about the divine character of Christianity were said to have been roused by a study of Paley's Evidences. That sense of moral responsibility in man which impressed Kant with the same awe as the starry heavens, can receive no strengthening from lectures on the duties of a man, any more than the awe which the starry heavens inspire can be produced by lectures on the rings of Saturn or the phases of the moon. Such strengthening must come from the emotions and the will being worked upon by the histories of great movements, the lives of great men, and the songs of great poets. It must come from the training of the will and the emotions by the actual details of academic life, by the elevating contact with good professors and fellow-students, by the constant engagement of the attention on the ennobling pursuits of literature, science, and philosophy; by the necessity, so often felt, "to scorn delights and live laborious days" and, even in our very modern State Colleges of this country, though on a very humble scale, by "that mass of continuous traditions always powerful and generally noble," of which Mr.

* Notwithstanding Dr. Whately's protest, in a note in his edition of Bacon's essays.
'Of Mathew Arnold in *Nineteenth Century* (November 1882)* p. 74-«

Gladstone* spoke so eloquently in his inaugural address to the University of Edinburgh.

That is the only course of moral education in which I have any faith. That is the course which alone, in my opinion, can be efficacious. Lectures on the duties of a man can at the best only lead to the "cold decrees of the brain"⁵ They have little or no efficacy in cooling down the "hot temper which leaps over" those decrees. These views might be easily supported by a mass of authority, but I will only refer here to that of one who is at once a writer on Moral Philosophy, a University Professor of the same subject, and a Chairman of a School Board in Scotland. I allude to Professor Calderwood, who has said in his recent work on Teaching its ends and means that "moral training is gained not so much by formal inculcation of duty, as by practice in well-doing throughout the common engagements of life" (p. 73 ; and see also pp. 25, 83, 123, &c.).

So far I have dealt only with the first part of the Recommendation. The second part, dealing with the duties of a citizen, appears to me to stand on a somewhat different footing. It seems to be intended to point rather to what may be called political, as distinguished from social, morality. Lectures on this subject may be of use, as the subject is one on which there is some real ignorance which may be dispelled by lectures addressed to the intellect. But I must own that I am afraid of the practical operation of this part of the Recommendation. In ordinary times, it may not be very material one way or the other, though even in ordinary times one can conceive the inconvenient results which may flow from it. But in times of excitement, such as those through which we have scarcely yet emerged, I much fear that the result will be to drag the serene dignity of the academy into the heat and dust of platform warfare. If the Professor's lectures tend to teach the pupils the duty of submission to the views of Government without a murmur of dissatisfaction, there is sure to come up a set of Liberal irreconcilables who will complain that Government is endeavouring to enslave the intellect of the nation. If the Professor's lectures are supposed to lead in the opposite direction, there will be some Tory irreconcilables ready to spring up and say, even more loudly and quite as erroneously as they are saying it now, that the colleges supported from State revenues are hotbeds of sedition.^f This is almost certain to occur in times of excitement. It may not unlikely occur in quiet times also. And with this risk, I confess, it seems to me that the advantages of such lectures will have been dearly purchased. If it is argued that the professors in our colleges are not now prevented from doing that which may afford a target for similar denunciation, my reply is that the professors may well do what they deem proper in their private capacity as citizens. But it becomes a very different thing when they deliver lectures at college in their capacity as Professors appointed by the State for the express purpose. The position on that point is exactly analogous to the position on the point of religious instruction under the Despatch of 1859, Sections 59-61.

I now come to the other Recommendation. The whole theory of moral education here adopted is one which I consider erroneous in principle, and likely to be bad in practical operation as tending to withdraw attention from the necessity of making not one or two hours of academic life, but the whole of it, a period of moral education. Holding that view, it follows, of course,

* See *Gleanings of past years*, Vol VII, p. 18.

^f *Of* Gladstone's *Gleanings*, VII, 13; and the evidence of Sir William Wedderburn and Mr. Wordsworth, and the Honourable Amir Alt. Mir. Johnstone, in the pamphlet above referred to, attacks us on this ground
*a*o, That his frame of mind may be judged of by his unhappy reference to the necessity of the Vernacular Press
ea one need not now waste a single syllable.

that I cannot accept the suggestion about the moral text-book. But further objections to that suggestion are stated in the Bombay Provincial Report, to which I still adhere. I will only add that the view there enunciated receives support from the history of a similar experiment tried many years ago in Ireland. No less a person than Archbishop Whately endeavoured to do for the elements of Christianity what Bishop Meurin proposes, and the Commission recommends, should be done for the elements of morality based on Natural Religion. With what result? The text-book was written, approved, sanctioned for use and used in the Irish schools, both Protestant and Roman Catholic. Then the tide turned, and the book had to be abandoned, and Archbishop Whately himself, the Lord Justice Christian, and Mr. Baron Greene resigned their seats on the School Board, upon the ground that what was done was a breach of faith with the people.* It is not necessary to enquire which, if either, of the parties to the contest was in the wrong. The lesson to be derived from the occurrence is equally clear and equally entitled to "give us pause" in the course on which we are recommended to enter, whether the fault in that particular matter lay with the Protestants or the Roman Catholics, with Archbishop Whately or with Archbishop Murray or his successor.

I will only add one word here with respect to the religious instruction which was raised before the Commission. A provision should be made in our educational system for religious instruction without which, as Lord Ripon declared before the Education Commission, all education is imperfect. I sympathise with this demand, but do not see my way to suggest any feasible means of satisfying it. There are only two possible modes, which can be adopted in justice and fairness, of practically imparting religious instruction. Either you must teach the principles common to all religions under the name of Natural Religion, or you must teach the principles of each religious creed to the students whose parents adopt that creed. The difficulties of these alternatives have been indicated by no less an authority than Mr. Cobden (see his Speeches, page 588, *et seq.*) Those difficulties are certainly not less great in this country than in England. They appear to me to be so great that we must be content to "take refuge," as it has been expressed, "in the remote haven of refuge for the educationists—the secular system." But I would also point out to all those who ask for this religious education that the cultivation of those feelings of human nature to which religion appeals is not even now entirely neglected, and that the further direction to be given to those feelings, according to the principles of each religious creed, ought to be undertaken, as it is best carried out, not by a Government like the British Indian Government, but by the professors of the several creeds.

Under the legislation of 1806," says Mr. Matthew Arnold, "it was not permitted to public schools to be denominational. The law required the instruction in them should be such as to train its recipients for the exercise of all social and Christian virtues, but no dogmatic religious instruction was to be given by the teacher, or was to be given in the school. Measures were to be taken, however, said the law, that the scholar should not go without the dogmatic teaching of the communion to which he belonged. Accordingly the Minister of the Home Department exhorted by circular the ministers of the different communions to co-operate with the Government in carrying the new law into execution, by taking upon themselves the religious instruction of the school children belonging to their persuasion. The

* Life of Dr. Whately, by Miss Whately, II, 264.

† Cf. Gladstone's Gleanings, YU, 109.

‡ Report of the Education Commission (1861), Vol. IV, page 139 j and see page 151. Still the schools were called "godless" (see page 144) in Holland.

religious authorities replied favourably to this appeal, and nowhere, perhaps, has the instruction of the people been more eminently religious than in Holland, while the public schools have, by law, remained unsectarian. That seems to me to indicate, though only in a general way, the true procedure to be followed in this matter by those who are dissatisfied with the religious results of our educational system. Some agencies of this sort, more or less organised, more or less powerful, are at present working. Whether a more complete organisation will bring out results more satisfactory to those who are now asking for a change, is a matter upon which I own I am somewhat sceptical. And some of the grounds of my scepticism have been already indicated in what I have said above, on the kindred question of moral education. But at all events, on this I am quite clear, that our institutions for secular instruction should not be embarrassed by any meddling with religious instruction, for such meddling, among other mischiefs, will yield results which on the religious side will satisfy nobody, and on the secular side will be distinctly retrograde, f

Proceeding to the next group of Recommendations under Collegiate Education, I need add little to what I have already said about fees and free studentships. I will only remark, however, that in my judgment the provision for free studentships in our colleges and high schools in Bombay (and partly also in Madras) is ridiculously small, being merely 5 per cent, of the total number at school or college. I have no belief in these arbitrary per-centages, whether in the matter of fees or scholarships or any other matters, and I think it ought at least to be open to the head of an institution to admit more than 5 per cent.* when the admissions can be made without making any individual class in the institution unmanageably large. The poor boys are the very salt of our colleges and schools, and I would earnestly plead for a fairly ample provision for them. Even in England, as appears from Mr. Pattison's suggestions on academical organisation (p. 67, *et seq.*), the principle, of such provision for the poor has been accepted by high authority. I am quite aware that a system of free studentships is objected to, on the ground that it is calculated to attract the best students to the State institutions, and thus act unfairly on the success of non-Government ones. But as the scholarships and free studentships are now proposed to be dissociated from one another, part of this objection seems to me to be removed. And for the rest. I am unable to see why, when the State has on other grounds determined to maintain an institution, it should not admit poor students free, subject to the limitation above indicated. On the contrary, I consider that the State is bound to admit them, because it is thus enabled to disseminate the benefits of its institutions wider, without increasing by one pie its own expenditure upon those institutions.

Proceeding now to the Recommendations in Chapter YI, I would specially emphasise the one about the appointment of native gentlemen to Inspectorships of schools. I am no fanatical advocate of the claims of my countrymen to appointments in the public service, but I must say that we have not received quite fair measure in this matter. { To borrow a figure from John Bright, we have had a feast with a very small quantity of meat and a very large quantity of table-cloth. In spite of this fact, I did not agree to the proposal placed before the Commission for a hard-and-fast rule requiring one-half of the Inspectorships in each province to be reserved for natives, because I should like* before supporting so radical, a proposal* to try the operation of the recommend-

* *Of* the quotation from Sir R. Peel in the evidence of Mr. Wordsworth.

† See Morley's Struggle for National Education, pa*«t»*.

‡ Cf. Appendix R to Mr. Dadabhaa Naoroji's "Note" presented to the Commission.

ation, which was accepted almost with one voice by the Commission. Long years hence, I hope, we may be able to dispense with the services of all highly-paid Inspectors, Native or European. When school management and inspection on the most approved principles are better and more widely understood, and when, by the development of local self-government, the people themselves begin to take a practical and energetic interest in education, there will be need for little more than examination and general supervision by the State, and that may be done by officers of a class corresponding to the Deputy or Assistant Inspectors of the present day. But such a consummation is yet in the distance, and its approach can only be accelerated, if in the meanwhile sympathetic and energetic officers are appointed to these important posts. "Take care/' said the founder of public instruction in Holland,—“ take care how you choose your Inspectors; they are men whom you ought to look for with a lantern in your hand.” I may add one word here about inspection by revenue officers. According to my information, derived from official and (what in my view is of greater importance) from non-official sources, this inspection is very useful in Bombay. In Bengal, however, we have the testimony of one of the revenue officials, that a measure similar to that now in force here “ set all the Education Department against us Magistrates, by giving us power to interfere with their proceedings.” * Our Recommendation is so worded as to avoid this risk, and it may be hoped that with the additional experience now acquired it may be entirely avoided.

There is one other point under this Chapter on which I wish to add a few words to what already appears in our minutes. After reconsidering all that was said in the debate against the Consultative Board of Education proposed by me, I am still of opinion that the view which prevailed was a bureaucratic and erroneous view. Looking especially to the scheme of local self-government in the Presidency of Bombay which has now been published, I do not see why the proposed board should not be able to give to the local boards quite as good advice as those officers whom the local boards will by law be bound to consult. And I will venture to add that even the trained officers of Government in the Education, as in any other department, will not find it disastrous to the efficient discharge of their duties, if they now and then take extra-departmental counsel, in the way which, according to Mr. Arnold, even the despots of the Continent of Europe do not disdain, if I observe that it is suggested in the Report that if the Department fails in its great duty of keeping touch with public opinion, “the Government is at hand to correct its deficiencies.” I wish I could feel confident on this point. But it is impossible that I can do so, when I remember the almost stereotyped answer of “ Government ” to all appeals against its departments, *viz.*, “We see no cause to interfere.”

I come next to the important subject of **grants-in-aid**. And while I entirely concur in the Recommendation made to correct the practical inconveniences in the administration of the grant with respect to colleges kept by the Jesuit Fathers,—a body who have done and are doing most admirable work in Bombay and elsewhere,—I must say that I am not satisfied with the restriction to that body of the relief intended to be afforded by the Recommendation. Here, again, I am referring mostly to institutions that may hereafter come into existence. And I cannot see upon what principle the benefit of the altered rule can be refused to an institution where the source of the grievance is not the constitution of the religious body to which the teachers belong, but some other circumstance. I ventured in the course of our debates to refer, as, an

* See *Life in the Mofussal* by a Bengal Civilian, Vol. II p. 254.

t *Schools and Universities on the Continent*, Preface, xxi, and p. 28.

instance, to the case of the new English School of Poona, as one which might be in a position to claim the benefit of the new principle. And I was told that I assumed, without good reason, that the Bombay system was about to undergo some radical change. As I did not and do not consider the Bombay system of payment by results pure and simple to be a perfect system, and as the Commission had unanimously recommended a revision of the grant-in-aid rules in consultation with school managers and with special reference to the complaints dwelt on in the Report, I thought it quite on the cards that a salary-grant system, or something similar, might, even in Bombay, be joined on to the existing system of payments by results. And in that view I referred to the new English School, and even then only as an illustration, not by any means as exhausting the possible cases calling for the application of the principle under discussion. The other objection taken—namely, that my proposal raised by a side wind the whole question of private adventure schools—seems to me to be sufficiently answered by the Recommendation No. 18 in this chapter which has been adopted by the Commission, and to which I offer no objection.

Upon the question of the conscience clause, my opinions are already on record in our minutes. I wish to add only a few words. It is said that in England the conscience clause is a dead letter. My information on that subject is, of course, limited; but if it is a dead letter, I cannot explain the recent speech of Mr. Mundella,* who spoke of the “fact that the Education Act, 1870, in relation to religious teaching, is doing a work which the country never expected of it, and which religious bodies themselves throughout the country appear scarcely to understand.” Besides, it certainly has not been formally repealed, and the question for us, therefore, is whether the provision is in itself a just and expedient one. I do not feel much pressed by the objection that a conscience clause is inconsistent with the provision of the Despatch which prohibits State interference with the religious teaching imparted in aided schools. For I consider that the effect of that prohibition is incorrectly described in the Report, when it is stated to be a “strict abstinence from all enquiry as to any religion being taught or not taught,” in such schools. I understand the prohibition to mean that the officers of the State are not to order or forbid the teaching of particular doctrines, or the use of particular text-books. But I do not understand it to prohibit the State from insisting that such religious teaching as is imparted should be imparted subject to the condition that any pupil may refuse to receive it if he pleases. The effect of the prohibition is no greater than that of the conscience clause of the Education Act of 1870, which, according to Mr. Morley,^f lays down absolute neutrality and indifference as regards religious instruction, and embodies the true principle thus expressed by Mr. Gladstone: “The duty of the State is to hold itself entirely and absolutely detached from all responsibility with regard to their” (*i.e.*, of the voluntary schools) “religious teaching.” The argument, again, that the conscience clause owes its origin historically to England having a State Church, is also answered by remembering that in Ireland, after the disestablishment and disendowment of the Church there, it is still enforced,[§] and that even here in India itself the Government have prescribed a conscience clause for European and Eurasian schools, not to mention that we have a State Church even in India which in 1880 cost £56,012 to the revenues of the country. ^{|j} And again, I own I cannot see how it is consistent with the absolute neutrality on which so much stress was laid

* See the *Time* for July 16.

[†] Struggle for National Education, page 87.

^X Quoted by Mr. Morley, page 79.

[§] And enforced in an even stronger form than is proposed for me,—*vide* 41 and 42 Viet., c. 66, § 7*

[¶] See Financial Reform Almanac (1882), page 190.

in the Commission, for the State to help some or even 'all of the warring religions and religious sects of the country with the funds at its command, where those funds are avowedly applied for propagandist purposes. That seems to me not neutrality, but participation in the strife, and even more,—in fact, a rushing into the *m&Ue*, so to say. And when it is said that the State has nothing to do except with secular results, I entirely demur to that contention, except in the case where the secular and the religious results are plainly severable one from the other. They are severable, when the pupils are allowed to withdraw from the religious lessons, if they please, in the manner provided by Section 7 of the Education Act of 1870. They are not severable, if the pupils are not allowed to do so.

We are thus brought back to the question, is the conscience clause just and expedient? I can see no reasonable argument against the justice of it; indeed, the justice seems to me to be practically admitted, when a representative of missionary schools protests that attendance at religious lessons is already voluntary. That shows that if my proposal is accepted, the result will be only to enforce the good example of some missionaries upon the whole body—a result to which I cannot see any objection even in the argument that “compelling” the missionaries to do this might be wrong, though the doing of it might be itself right. Is it then expedient? If I thought that the effect of the proposed rule would be to reduce very greatly the number of missionary schools in the country, it would, in my opinion, perhaps be inexpedient. But I am satisfied that that will not be the result at all. The very eminent representative of missionary institutions in the Commission told us plainly that that would not be the result. And I agree with him.

But it is said that this objection is only made by a section of society which is indifferent to religious instruction. My answer to this is a very short one: it is at once unfounded and irrelevant. Lastly, I wish to notice one* misapprehension on this subject. It is not correct to say that the proposal of a conscience clause is exclusively aimed at Christian missionaries, though it most certainly is aimed mainly at them. We have already seen the beginnings of educational activity on the part of the Brahmo Samajes and the Prarthana Samajes throughout the country. To them, as well as to the various religious persuasions—Hindus, Muhammadans, &c.—which are referred to in the Despatch, and to which Lord Ripon appealed in his address before the University of Calcutta, a similar rule ought to be made applicable, although all these, unlike missionary societies, are local bodies, and although, therefore, any encouragement given to them will have a perceptible effect in fostering that “spirit of local exertion and combination for local purposes” which is referred to in the Despatch, but which cannot be fostered by encouraging a foreign agency, although private, and whether missionary or non-missionary. For I confess I cannot follow those witnesses who say that missionary effort in this country has served to evoke private native effort; while on the other hand some of the representatives of native private effort have said that the encouragement given to the former has acted prejudicially upon their energies.*

A somewhat kindred question is the one of the education of the lowcastes. I have no wish to quarrel with the Recommendation on that subject as it now stands. The feelings or prejudices on the subject are undergoing change, and a few years of cautious forbearance may put an extinguisher upon the question altogether. Meanwhile those who have to deal with each case as it arises must remember that, in carrying out a correct principle even in educational matters, much allowance is not unfrequently always claimed, and has to be made for the feelings and prejudices of even very advanced and enlightened communities,

* See Mr. Aptes evidence, pp. 7, 26; Mr. Bhave's evidence, pp. 3, 4; Mr. M. B. Coopers evidence, pp. 3 > 4* 6, 9.

The superstitions we have learned.

From education, do not lose their power,
When we have found them out; nor are all free
Whose judgment mocks the galling chains they wear.

A fortiori, therefore, should such allowance as has been here alluded to be made for those who, without the light of modern education and enlightenment, still cling to the prejudices which they have inherited from antiquity.

There is only one other point now to which I wish to refer in this memorandum. It does not fall properly within the scope of the Commission's labours as being a matter relating to the University of Bombay. But as the matter has been publicly canvassed, I wish to say one or two words upon it. And first I refer to the statement of Father Rivet that the University appoints as examiners Professors in the Government colleges, and not those in the private ones. That this is a mistake is shown by the evidence of Mr. Wordsworth, who has been for a long time a member of the Syndicate of the University of Bombay; and indirectly also by the statement of Father Willy, who formerly belonged to the same institution as Father Rivet himself (Father Willy's statement is an appendix to the evidence of the Rev. S. Gallo, S.J., of Cananore,—see p. 10). A more aggressive and much less defensible statement is made by the Sub-Committee of the Bombay Missionary Conference. They say, "We would also state that this feeling of antagonism is carried into the higher examinations,—namely, those of the University. The year 1881 affords a notable *example* of this. Candidates in the examination were asked by *Government Professors* acting as Examiners, to what school or college they belonged. We regret to state that in some cases remarks were made tending to the disparagement of aided institutions in the eyes of the students. This is no private matter; it is one which has been to some extent already ventilated in the public prints." Now, the first remark which arises upon this statement is the great unfairness of the procedure adopted by this Sub-Committee. The members of it are all of them, I believe, members of the University which they attack, and they have never called upon the University Senate, or its Executive Committee the Syndicate, to investigate the serious charge which they make both against the University and the individual Examiners concerned. The second observation which arises is that these gentlemen, not claiming to know personally anything about the gravamen of the charges preferred by them, nevertheless adduce no authority in support of them except the anonymous writings in the "public prints,"^{5*} which, though affording very good grounds for investigation, cannot be accepted as in themselves proof by any fair mind.* Thirdly, it is to be noted that the statement above excerpted goes a great deal beyond the only evidence that is adduced for it. The "public prints" did not say, as far as I know, that what occurred in 1881 was an *example* of anything whatever. What occurred, or rather was supposed to have occurred, was commented on only with reference to future improvement, and not as a repetition of former misdeeds. Further, the charge then made was not made against "Government Professors," but against one individual Professor, who had two colleagues, one of whom was a member of an independent profession, and the other a Professor in an institution in one of the Native States not having anything to do with the Department of Education in British territory. Lastly, upon the point as to what actually did occur, I had an explanation from the gentleman in question at the time the matter was "ventilated in the public prints." That explanation has been corroborated by the Examiner, who is unconnected with our State Department of Education, who writes as follows to his colleague: "I can heartily endorse your statement that your sole motive in asking any question of the kind was to ascertain whether the pupil had read all his course; whether his ignorance was all-pervading or only limited to certain parts in which his Professor had not lectured. As we had been informed that the students of certain colleges had not been taken over the whole course by their teachers, and we thought it hard

lines that good men should be ploughed simply because of the slowness of their teachers. The arrangement of the previous examination made by the Syndicate, by which each Examiner took one-third of each paper, gave us no means of explaining wide discrepancies between various sections of a student's work, and accordingly it occasionally became necessary to ask whether there was any special reason for such inequality existing. The result of our enquiries in most cases fully justified the question asked, and enabled us to do fuller justice to the particular students." Such is the version of the occurrence alluded to given by one who is not a "Government Professor." It has come to me, I may mention, from the gentleman against whom the criticism of the Subcommittee of the Bombay Missionary Conference is levelled, enclosed in a reply to my request to him to let me have in writing the explanation which he had given me verbally at the end of 1881. That request was made by me when I saw the statement of the Bombay Missionary Conference submitted to the Commission.

The explanation now given calls for but one remark. So far from the proceedings of the "Government Professor" in question indicating "any feeling of antagonism" to aided institutions of which the latter may fairly and reasonably complain, they indicate, to my mind, a laxity of examination in favour of the pupils of one aided institution, of which the University has just reason to complain. And as the Bombay Missionary Conference rely on this as an "example" of how "the feeling of antagonism" alleged by them is carried into the examinations of the University, I am bound to say that, in my humble judgment, it is not of any antagonism of "Government Professors" to aided institutions that the incident in question furnishes an "example." I may add that it is only since this incident that I have been elected a member of the Syndicate of the University, and that what I have said is not, therefore, in self-defence, but in defence of an institution in which I take deep interest, and which appears to me to have been unfairly attacked.

A good deal more might easily and very fairly have been said on the subjects dealt with in these observations. But they have already exceeded the limits which I had anticipated. I trust that the importance of the topics dealt with and the weight due to the opinions of those from whom I dissent in regard to them will be accepted as a sufficient apology for that circumstance. I will, in conclusion, only add that I hope that the Government of Lord Ripon, which has already done so much for the country, will add the educational to its many laurels, and achieve, directly or indirectly, the credit which Mr. M. Arnold gives to the Government of France on the Restoration after the battle of Waterloo. "To the Restoration," he says, "is due the credit of having first perceived that in order to carry on the war with ignorance, the sinews of war were necessary. Other Governments had decreed systems of education for the people—the Government of the Restoration decreed funds." The question of popular education is now mainly a question of funds. What is wanted and what we must trust to is not the short-sighted economies in the expenditure on higher education which have been suggested by some irresponsible reformers of our system, almost without exception *not* natives of the country, but what is wanted is an effort on the part of the British Indian Governments to follow, at however great a distance, the Imperial Government, which has in ten years increased its grant to education from £1,940,000 to £4,290,000 sterling,* and a like effort on the part of the leaders of the people to help the Government in spreading the benefits of education far and wide in this great country.

HIGH COURT, BOMBAY,
25th September 1883

* See Financial Reform Almanac (1882), p. 145.

Dissent recorded by Arthur Sowell, Esq,

I regret that I am compelled to dissent from the Report on three points of principle. The Report is already so voluminous that I will state my dissent in the briefest possible way.

I dissent (i) from the third Recommendation under Primary Education. As I read the Despatches of 1854, 1859, and 1864, and the declared views of the Government of India in 1868, culminating in the Despatch of 26th May 1870, which was the outcome of prolonged correspondence, I hold that all Government expenditure on education should be "mainly devoted" to elementary education for the masses of the people. I would support this view by the considerations adduced in clause 3, paragraph 8, of Chapter XI of the Report; by the obvious needs of the masses of this country for general education both on its own account and as the best basis and preliminary to technical education; and by the precedent of most educational systems elsewhere. Hence in lieu of the Recommendation cited, I hold that *the elementary education of the masses should be declared to be that part of the State system of education to which public funds should be mainly devoted*. The arguments for and against this Recommendation will be found in the Commission's proceedings of the 14th February last, when the Recommendations, as they now stand, were carried against the principle for which I still contend.

I dissent (2) from clause 1, Recommendation No. 32, under Chapter VIII (Withdrawal), which seems to me to find no warrant in the Despatch of 1854, and indeed to go beyond its spirit and plain intention. I hold that there can be no adequate grounds in any case to bar even the consideration of withdrawal, still less in cases where it is possible that the sole conditions required by the Despatch may be fulfilled. The arguments for and against this view will be found discussed in the Commission's Proceedings of the 2nd and 6th March last. It is significant that, on the latter date, a proposition, practically identical with one negated on the former date, was brought forward by a native gentleman, thus cutting away one of the main arguments of the majority that any such proposal would be received with profound alarm and dissatisfaction by the native community.

Hence in lieu of the Recommendation cited I hold that *under adequate guarantees for the permanence and efficiency of the substituted institutions > the gradual withdrawal of Government from educational institutions, especially those of the higher order, by their transfer to local, native management under the general control of and aided by the State, be regarded—*

- (a) *as an important stimulus to local effort and self reliance ;*
- (b) *as essential to the development of a sound system of grants-in-aid;*
- (c) *as conducive to the advancement of the social, moral and political education of the people.*

I dissent (3) from the view which underlies all the Commission's Recommendations about legislation in Chapter XI. The Commission, in its legitimate anxiety to avoid any measure involving over-centralization and denying free and proper latitude to local requirements, seems to overlook the fact that education in India was initiated on its present footing and maintained for nearly thirty years under the general orders of 1854 and 1859, and that the main causes of failure, recorded in the Report, were not that those orders were, in any particular, unsound, but that they were not adequately complied with. Why, then, is it impossible or undesirable to enforce the principles of the Despatches by a single Educational Act for all India ? I hold that such a measure is not **only** possible but is shown by the repeated failure of executive orders to be desirable. I hold that a measure limited to principles might be framed so

as (to quote paragraph 651, Chapter XI, Report) to be capable of ready adoption by the Local Government concerned to the circumstances of each Province. But I would, for the present, on the grounds stated in that paragraph, limit such a measure to primary education.

The 2yth September 1883.

Note by the president.

In justice to one of the witnesses who appeared before the Commission, I desire to add a Note, not as a dissent, but by way of explanation. Dr. Leitner gave evidence at considerable length, and he was further deputed by the Government of the Punjab to prepare for the Commission a Report on indigenous education in that Province. This document forms a folio volume of 666 pages, but it has been little used and is scarcely referred to in the Report of the Commission. Dr. Leitner's statements differed widely from the evidence officially submitted to the Commission. Colonel Holroyd, the Director of Public instruction for the Punjab, had stated in his evidence that the latest return of the indigenous schools in that Province showed 4,662 schools containing 53,027 pupils in 1879. Dr. Leitner showed in his Report that he had actually enumerated 6,362 such schools in 1882, attended by 86,023 pupils. Supplementing the admitted deficiencies of his returns by the census figures of 1881, Dr. Leitner arrived at the still larger total of 98,318 pupils. Finally, after a review of all the available facts, he declared that while indigenous education had decreased and was decreasing in the Punjab, under the discouraging influence of the Department of Public Instruction, "there can scarcely be less than 120,000 pupils" in the still surviving indigenous schools.

This, Dr. Leitner, "represents the protest of the people against our system of education." Taken along with other statements submitted by Dr. Leitner it amounted to a charge that, while the Education Department in the Punjab spent in 1880-81 close on Rs. 1,400,000 in educating 105,000 pupils, on imported methods, the people were maintaining a national system of their own, which received neither aid nor encouragement from the Department, but which was nevertheless educating 120,000 pupils. If such statements could be maintained, they opened up a serious question as to the application of the educational cess levied from the cultivators for primary schools, but no part of which is devoted to the indigenous primary schools. But it was impossible to find any basis of agreement between Colonel Holroyd's 53,027 pupils in indigenous schools in 1879, and Dr. Leitner's 120,000 pupils in such schools in 1882. The difficulty was enhanced by Dr. Leitner's figures, tending to show that there had been a decrease in late years. After a scrutiny of the statistical methods employed by Dr. Leitner, I could detect nothing in them which raised a presumption against their accuracy, and I recorded my vote accordingly. But to the majority of the Commission the tone of Dr. Leitner's Report seemed exaggerated, and a prolonged debate ended in a resolution embodying that view.

It is, therefore, due to Dr. Leitner to mention, that since the Report of the Commission was written, I have, through the courtesy of the Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab, received an early copy of a Report which more than bears out Dr. Leitner's largest estimate. The Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab having ordered a special enquiry into indigenous education, it is now officially ascertained that there are 13,109 indigenous schools in that Province, attended by 135,344 pupils. These figures are accepted by Colonel Holroyd, the Director of Public Instruction, in his Report (not yet published) for the year 1882-83. They show that Dr. Leitner's largest estimate of 120,000 pupils, so far from

being exaggerated, was below the truth- How far this circumstance might have modified the views of the Commission as to the general tone of Dr. Leitner's Report, it is not for me in the absence of my colleagues to offer any conjecture.

Before concluding this Note, I desire to express my concurrence with Mr. Howell in the separate opinion which he has recorded, so far as regards the expediency of having a general Education Act for India. At page 561 the Commission stated " that the central authority, being most conversant with principles, should supply principles; while the Local Governments should embody those principles in Acts suited to the circumstances of each Province." * *

* " It is not thereby intended that any one large measure should regulate the details of education throughout all India." The method which the Supreme Government may adopt for declaring the general principles, whether by legislative enactment or by executive orders, seems to me to be a question which must be left to the Supreme Government itself. But as an anxiety to avoid over-centralization underlies many of our Recommendations, I beg to express my concurrence with Mr. Howell that a short Act by the Supreme Government, declaring the general principles, "is not only possible, but is shown by the repeated failure of executive orders, to be desirable."

W. W. HUNTER,

President of the Commission,

29th September 1883.

APPENDIX A.

**RESOLUTION OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA APPOINTING
THE EDUCATION COMMISSION.**

No.

*Extract from the Proceedings of the Government of India, Me Some Department (Education), under
date, William, the 3rd February 1882.*

KEAD—

Selections from the Records of the Government of India, Home Department,—

- (a) No. LXXVI—"Collection of despatches from the Home Government on the subject of Education in India, 1854 to 1868."
- (6) No. liiV—"A Note on the state of Education in India* during 1865-66, by Mr. A. M. Montearth, C.S."
- (c) No. LXVTI—"A Note on the state of Education in India, during¹1866-67, by Mr. A. P. Howell, C.S"
- (d) A Note on the state of Education in India, during 1867-68, by Mr. A. P. Howell, C.S.
(s) Note on Education in British India prior to 1854 and in 1870-71, by Mr. A. P. Howellr C.S.
- (/) Annual Reports on Public Instruction in the different provinces of British India, from 1871-72 to 1880-81.
- (^) Circular letters to Local Governments and Administrations, Nos* 4—157 to 164, dated 10th June 1881, and Nos. 6—230 to 230, dated 30th July 188J, calling for report on the system of primary education now in force and the progress made in primary education since the Education Department was made over to Local Governments in 1871.
- (A) Replies of Local Governments and Administrations to the foregoing circular*

Resolution.—The despatch from the Court of Directors of the East India Company, No. 49 of the 19th July 1854, laid down in clear, though general, terms the principles which should govern the educational policy of the Grovemment of India. It sets forth (in the words of Lord Dalhousie) "a scheme of education, for all India, far wider and more comprehensive than the Supreme or any Local Government could ever have ventured to suggest." Up to the time of its issue the efforts of the Government in the cause of education had been marked neither by consistency of direction, nor by any breadth of aim. The annual expenditure upon Public Instruction had been insignificant and uncertain; and the control of its operations had not been deemed worthy the attention of any special department of the State* The educational system elaborated in the despatch was indeed, both in its character and scope, far in advance of anything existing at the time of its inception. It furnished, in fact, a masterly and comprehensive outline, the filling up of which was necessarily to be the work of many years. Hence it became a matter of importance that Government should from time to time review the progress made under *its orders*, and enquire *how* far the superstructure corresponded with the original design.

2. Such an enquiry was instituted by the Secretary of State for India in his despatch No. 4 of the 7th April 1859, in which, after describing the measures actually taken upon the orders of 1854, Her Majesty's Government confirmed and supplemented the lines of policy therein contained, so far as general education was concerned, and called upon the Government of India for fuller report as to the operation of the system in all its parts* Owing to imperfections in the method of the annual reports as then prepared, *the Government* of India found it difficult to comply in any satisfactory manner with this demand of the Secretary of State, and it was not until the year 1867 that it was found possible to present anything like a complete review of the whole educational system. In March of that year Mr. A. M. Montearth, then Under-Secretary in lie Home Department, submitted his "Note upon the state of education in India during 1865-66;" which was followed by similar ^{ff} Notes/⁵ prepared by his successor, Mr. A. P. Howell, dealing with the statistics of 1866-67, 1867-68, and 1870-71.

3. In the year 1871 the control of the Educational Department was, under the operation of the financial decentralisation scheme, made over to the Local Governments; and the Government of India has since that time had to depend mainly upon the annual departmental reports

for its knowledge of the manner in which the educational system is progressing, and in which it is being developed and adapted to the more modern requirements of the different provinces.

4. In view of the facts that, since the measures set forth in the Despatch of 1854 came into active operation, a full quarter of a century has elapsed, and that it is now ten years since the responsible direction of the educational system was entrusted to the Local Governments, it appears to His Excellency the Governor General in Council that the time has come for instituting a more careful examination into the results attained, and into the working of the present arrangements, than has hitherto been attempted. The experience of the past has shown that a mere critical review or analysis of the returns and reports of the different provinces fails to impart a thoroughly satisfactory knowledge of the actual state of things in the districts, and that there are many points which only an acquaintance with local circumstances can adequately estimate or explain. His Excellency in Council has therefore decided to appoint a Commission on behalf of Government to enquire into the present position of education in British India, and to nominate to this Commission a sufficient number of persons from the different provinces to secure the adequate and intelligent consideration of the facts that will be laid before it.

5. The Commission will be constituted as follows:

President:

The Hon'ble W. W. HUNTER, LL.D., C.J.E.

Members ;

The Hon'ble Sayyid Ahmad Khan Bahadur, C.S.I.

The Hon'ble D. M. BARBOUR, C.S.

The Rev. W. R. Blackett, M.A.

Mr. Ananda Mohujj Bose, **B.A.**

Mr. A. W. Croft, **M.A.**

Mr. K. Deighton, B.A.

Mr. J. T. FOWLER.

Mr. A. P. Howell, M.A., C.S.

Mr. H. P. Jacob.

Mr. W. Lee-Warner, M.A., C.S.

The Eved. W. Miller, M.A.

P. Bakganada Mudaliar, **M.A.**

The Hon'ble Baboo Bhatjeb Mookerjee, C.I.E.

Mr. C. Pearson, M.A.

The Hon'ble Maharaja Jotjdro Mohan Tagore, C.S.I.

KLashinath Trimbik Telang, **M.A., LL.B.**

Mr. O. K Ward, C.S.

The Bevd. A. JEAHT, D.D.

An educational officer from the Central Nominations

Provinces.*

A native gentleman from the Punjab.† J > under con-

sideration.

Secretary:

Mr. B. L. Rice.

6. It will be the duty of the Commission to enquire particularly (subject only to certain limitations to be noticed below) into the manner in which effect has been given to the principles of the Despatch of 1854; and to suggest such measures as it may think desirable in order to the further carrying out of the policy therein laid down. The Government of India is firmly convinced of the soundness of that policy, and has no wish to depart from the principles upon which it is based. It is intended only at the present time to examine into the general results of its operation, and to scrutinize the efficiency of the machinery that has been set on foot for bringing about those ends which the Government from the outset had especially in view. The general purport of the Despatch of 1854* was thus summarised by the Secretary of State in 1859:

The improvement and far wider extension of education, both English and Vernacular, having been the general objects of the Despatch of 1854, the means prescribed for the accomplishment of those objects were the establishment of a separate department of the administration for the work of education; the institution of normal schools at the several presidency towns; the establishment of training institutions for raising up teachers for the

* [Mr. Cecil Browning, Inspector-General of Education in the Central Provinces, was appointed. W. W. EL.]
† [Mr. Hay. G. Jam of Amritsar was appointed.—W. W. ff.]

various classes of schools; the maintenance of the existing Government colleges and schools of a high order, and the increase of their number when necessary; the establishment of additional zillah or middle schools; increased attention to vernacular schools for elementary education, including the indigenous schools already existing throughout the country; and, finally, the introduction of a system of grants-in-aid under which the efforts of private individuals and of local communities would be stimulated and encouraged by pecuniary grants from Government in consideration of a good secular education being afforded in the aided schools.

It will be for the Commission to enquire how far these objects have been attained, and how this machinery is working at the present time.

7. **It will not be necessary for the Commission to enquire into the general working of the Indian Universities, which are controlled by corporations comprising representatives of all classes interested in collegiate education. Of the results of their operation a fair estimate can always be formed independently of any special enquiry such as is now proposed. Nor will it be necessary for the Commission to take by the subject of special or technical education, whether medical, legal, or engineering. To extend the enquiry to these subjects would expand unduly the task before the Commission. Again the Government of India has itself very recently dealt with the question of European and Eurasian education, and no further enquiry is necessary as regards that. But, with these exceptions, the Governor General in Council is of opinion that the Commission may usefully consider the working of all branches of the Indian educational system. These branches are, it is believed, so closely connected one with another, that it is only by examining the system as a whole that any sound conclusions are likely to be come to. The Commission need not concern itself with the details of the educational system in British Burma. The arrangements there are of comparatively recent date, and in great measure peculiar to the Province. Any suggestions of general value that the Commission may evolve can easily be applied to British Burma hereafter in consultation with the Chief Commissioner.**

8. **It is the desire of the Governor General in Council that the Commission should specially bear in mind the great importance which the Government attaches to the subject of primary education. The development of elementary education was one of the main objects contemplated by the Despatch of 1854. Attention was specially directed in that despatch to the question "how useful and practical knowledge, suited to every station in life, might be best conveyed to the great mass of the people, who are utterly incapable of obtaining any education worthy of the name by their own unaided efforts/" and it was desired that "the active measures of Government should be more especially directed for the future to this object." Although the matter was thus prominently and at the outset pressed upon the attention of the Indian Administrations, there can, His Excellency in Council believes, be very little doubt that, owing to a variety of circumstances, more progress has up to the present time been made in high and middle than in primary education. The Government of India is not disposed in any way to regret this advance. It would be altogether contrary to its policy to check or hinder in any degree the further progress of high or middle education. But the Government holds that the different branches of Public Instruction should, if possible, move forward together, and with more equal step than hitherto, and the principal object, therefore, of the enquiry of the Commission should be "the present state of elementary education throughout the empire, and the means by which this can everywhere be extended and improved."**

9. **While this is the main object to which the enquiries of the Commission should be directed, the Governor General in Council desires to impress upon it at the same time the fact, that it is not possible for the Government to find funds sufficient to meet the full requirements of the country in the matter of primary education, if those requirements are to be judged by any European standard. The resources at the disposal of Government, whether imperial, provincial or local, are, and must long remain, extremely limited in amount, and the result is, not only that progress must necessarily be gradual, but that if satisfactory progress is to be made at all, every available private agency must be called into action to relieve and assist the Public funds in connection with every branch of Public Instruction. It was in view of "the impossibility of Government alone doing all that must be done to provide adequate means for the education of the Natives of India/" that the grant-in-aid system was elaborated and developed by the Despatch of 1854; and it is to the wider extension of this system, especially in connection with high and middle education, that the Government looks to set free funds which may then be made applicable to the promotion of the education of the masses. "The resources of the State ought," as remarked by the Secretary of State in Despatch No. 13 of 25th April 1864 "to be so applied as to assist those who cannot be expected to help themselves and the richer classes of the people should gradually be induced to provide for their own education/5**

10. Un pursuance of this policy it is the desire of Government to offer every encouragement to Native gentlemen to come forward and aid, even more extensively than heretofore, in the establishment of schools upon the grant-in-aid system : and His Excellency in Council is the more anxious to see this brought about, because, apart altogether from the consequent pecuniary relief to Government, it is chiefly in this way that the Native community will be able to secure that freedom and variety of education which is an essential condition in any sound and complete educational system. It is not, in the opinion of the Governor General in Council, a healthy symptom that all the youth of the country should be cast, as it were, in the same Government educational mould. Rather is it desirable that each section of the people should be in a position to secure that description of education which is most consonant to its feelings and suited to its wants. The Government is ready therefore to do all that it can to foster such a spirit of independence and self-help. It is willing to hand over any of its own colleges or schools in suitable cases to bodies of Native gentlemen who will undertake to manage them satisfactorily as aided institutions; all that the Government will insist upon, being that due provision is made for efficient management and extended usefulness. It will be for the Commission to consider in what mode effect can most fully be given to these views; and how the grant-in-aid system may best be shaped so to stimulate such independent effort, and make the largest use of the available Government funds.

11. It is specially the wish of Government that municipal bodies should take a large and increasing share in the management of the public schools within the limits of their jurisdictions. The best way of securing this result should also be considered by the Commission.

12. It has been not unfrequently stated that the wealthier classes do not at present pay enough for the education of their children. The Governor General in Council is disposed to think that a good deal of misapprehension exists as to the real truth in this matter; but it is one into which the Commission should make careful enquiry. It is no doubt right that persons in good circumstances should pay the full cost of their children's education, or at any rate that no part of this should fall upon State funds. But in endeavouring to secure this result, care must be taken that no unnecessary obstacles are thrown in the way of the upward progress of really deserving students of the poorer classes. The Governor General in Council has no wish to close the doors of high education to all but the wealthiest members of the Native community. Hitherto those who have been most ready to take advantage of superior instruction have frequently belonged to families of comparatively limited private means, and there should, in the opinion of the Government of India, be no such sudden and general raising of fees as to carry high education beyond the reach of those classes who at present *bond fide* seek for it, or to convert the Government colleges into places to which only the higher classes can procure admission. But, speaking broadly, the fees in colleges and high schools should be on the whole adequate; provision being made by means of a proper system of scholarships for the rise of youths of proved ability from the lowest to the highest grade of institution. The funds available for scholarships ought in any case to be so distributed that ample facilities for obtaining a good secondary education are held out to a large number of youths in the lower schools. The provision of scholarships tenable during a university course need not be so liberal, but should still be sufficient to afford the best of the pupils of middle and high schools a fair opportunity of obtaining an advanced education if they show themselves fit for it. The Government scholarships ought, however, in no way to be placed on an eleemosynary basis, but should always be given as distinct rewards for merit tested and proved by competitive examinations. This will leave a wide field open for the establishment of scholarships requiring local or other qualifications, through the munificence of private individuals or corporations. The Commission is requested to devote special attention to the whole subject of scholarships with reference to the foregoing remarks.

13. In connection with the general subject of primary education, the Commission should particularly enquire as to the extent to which indigenous schools exist in different parts of this country, and are, or can be, utilised as a part of the educational system. The Government of India is disposed to advocate the making as much use as possible of such schools.

14. The investigation of this last point will no doubt lead the Commission to consider the subjects of instruction for primary schools. It is very important that schools of this class should be made as attractive as possible to the classes of the population for whom they are intended. By teaching subjects to which the parents attach importance children will be more readily drawn into the schools, and it will not then be difficult to graft on to those more popular branches of instruction others which are more valuable from a sound educational point of view. It is believed that the great hold which in many parts of the country the indigenous schools have acquired over the masses is due to the [^]aw-technical character of the instruction

given;—the son of the ryot and the petty trader being taught, though often in a mechanical and unintelligent way, things likely to prove useful to him in his daily after-life. It would seem that in some provinces the advantages of this system have been overlooked in favour of a scheme of elementary education more in accordance with European methods and standards.

15. Bearing these facts in mind, the Commission should consider how best to provide for the extension of primary schools, and in discussing this the limitation imposed upon the action of Government by financial considerations must always be borne in mind. Subject to this it may be said that, generally speaking, the great object in the first instance is to get such schools established: their improvement and elevation to a higher standard being, though of great importance, an object of subsequent endeavour. Provision for such improvement in a reasonable way, by a gradual raising of the standard of instruction entitling to grants of public funds must, however, be made : and the Commission should advise as to how this can best be done without attempting a too rapid advance or throwing obstacles in the way of the extension of the area of instruction, especially in backward districts.

16. The arrangements existing in different parts of the country for training the teachers of primary schools should be brought under careful review, and suggestions for rendering that training more efficient and practical should, if possible, be submitted.

17. In connection with the subject of secondary education, the Governor General in Council is disposed to think that good might result from an enquiry into the quality and character of the instruction at present imparted in schools of this class. The great majority of those who prosecute their studies beyond the primary stage will never go beyond the curriculum of the middle or at furthest of the high schools. It is therefore of the utmost importance that the education they receive should be as thorough and sound as possible. There are grounds for doubting whether there is not in some provinces, at any rate, much room for improvement in this respect. It might be advisable at the same time, to enquire what practical steps are being taken to give effects to the suggestions of the Simla Text Books Committee, and the orders of the Government of India thereupon, as contained in the Resolution of the Home, Revenue and Agricultural Department, 1—3—18 of the 10th January 1881 j especially as regards the arrangements made for teaching such subjects as may store the minds of the pupils in secondary schools with practical and useful information. It will be understood that the Government of India has no wish to depart from the principles laid down in that Resolution. It would be contrary to the policy of Government to adopt any measures that would have the appearance of restricting aided schools to the use of any particular class of text-books, or to interfere with the free choice of the managers in such matters. But it is desirable to know how far the general suggestions of the Committee have found acceptance in the different provincesj and what is being done to carry them out in the case of both Government and aided instruction.

18. The Commission may further with advantage enquire into the present system of educational inspection, with a view to the removal of defects and introduction of improvements. It is quite certain that if there is any great extension of primary schools, arrangements must be made for securing the assistance of a large amount of voluntary agency in the work of inspection and examination. The most likely means of securing this should be considered and discussed.

19. In its bearing upon the grant-in-aid system, the plan of payment-by-results will call for the careful consideration of the Commission. The mode in which this is at present worked in the different provinces,—the extent to which it would be wise or practicable to enforce it generally,—its applicability to primary as well as to secondary and collegiate education,___are all matters demanding special investigation.

20. Lastly, the Governor General in Council would wish the Commission to consider the important and difficult subject of female education, and the best means of encouraging and extending it, so far as the circumstances of the country will at present permit.

21. The Government of India has indicated generally in the foregoing paragraphs the matters to which the enquiries of the Commission may chiefly and most properly be directed; hut it is at liberty to express its opinion upon any matter arising out of, or cognate to, the subjects thus referred to it.

22. As regards the manner of conducting the enquiry, the Governor General in Council ihfnlrs that the Commission should meet at Calcutta as soon as its members can be got together; and tha should sit for the transaction of business until at any rate the end of March. After that the members should return to their provinces, while the President and the Secretary should arrange to make a tour, (say) during the rains, to the different Presidencies, with a view to collecting definite information on any points indicated by the Commission upon

which such, local enquiry may seem necessary. The Commission should then Te-assemble early in December and proceed to the final settlement of the questions before it and the preparation of its Report. In the matter of procedure the Commission will be left free to make its own arrangements, and may call for such information or take such evidence as may seem necessary or desirable for the purposes of its enquiry.

23. Advantage will be taken of the presence on the commission of educational officers from different provinces to have the Annual Statistical Returns of Education once for all revised and placed upon an intelligible and uniform basis.

Obdee,—Ordered, that a copy of the above Resolution be forwarded to the President and Members of the Commission, and to all Local Governments and Administrations for information, and that it be published in the *Gazette of India*.

A. MACKENZIE,

Offg. Secretary to the Govt. of India.

APPENDIX B.

LIST OF WITNESSES WHO HAVE GIVEN EVIDENCE BEFORE THE COMMISSION.

MADRAS.

1	Ansar-ud-din Sahib, Mir	Presidency Magistrate, Madras.
2	Barrow, Cecil M., Esq., b.a.	Principal?, Kerala Vidyasala, Calicut.
3	Bauboo, Mrs. P. M.	Free Church Mission Girls' Schools, Madras.
4*	Bickle, G., Esq.*	Acting Inspector of Schools.
5	Bradshaw, Dr. John, m.a., lu>..	Inspector of Schools.
6	Brander, Mrs. J.	Inspectress of Girls' Schools, Madras.
7	Chentsal Row, P., Esq.	Superintendent of Stamps and Stationery.
8	ChesteT, Revd. E., M.D.	American Madura Mission.
9	Colgan, Rt. Revd. J.D., D.	Roman Catholic Bishop of Madras.
10	Cooling, Revd. J b . a	Wesleyan Mission, Madras.
11	Duncan, D.> Esq., M.A., D.SC.	Acting Principal, Presidency College, and Registrar, Madras University.
1!2	Gallo, Revd. T. L.*	S. Cannanore.
13	Graeter, Revd. B.	Basel Mission, Mangalore.
14	Harcourt, Revd. V. W.	Church Missionary Society.
15	Hudson, Revd. J., b.a.	General Superintendent of the Mysore Wesleyan Mission.
16	Kearns, Mrs.	Missionary, Church of England Zenana Mission, North Tinnevelly.
17	Krishnamachariar, V E s q .	« Curator and Registrar of Boohs.
18	Mutuswamy Ayer, Hon. Mr. Justice T., B.L., C.I.E.,	Judge of the High Court, Madras.
19	Padfield, Revd. J. E.	Principal, C. M. Society's Training Institution, Masulipatam.
20	Paulie, A. J., Esq.*	Formerly in charge of Roman Catholic School, Vizagapatam.
21	Pearce, C. W., Esq.	Principal, S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly.
22	Rungia Chettiar, Mr. P., b.a.	Superintendent of Vernacular Instruction, Madras Christian College.
23	Rondy, Revd. N.	Catholic Priest, Coimbatore.
24	Razza Khan, Mahomed	Berar Commission.
25	St. Cyr, Rev. Louis, s J,	Catholic Missionary, Jesuit Madura Mission.
26	Sell, Revd. E., b.d.....	Secretary, Church Missionary Society, Madras.
27	Stevenson, Revd. W., ba.	Secretary, Free Church of Scotland Mission, Madras.
28	Sfcuirock, J., Esq., c.s.*	Collector and Magistrate of South Canara.

if. B.—Those marked thus* did not appear for cross-examination.

- 29 **Tarbes, Revd. A.** . Superior, *St. Joseph's Institution, Cuddalore.*
SO Thomas, H. S., Esq., m.c.s.* Second Member, *Board of Revenue, Madras.*
 31 **Yijiaranga Mudalyar, P., Esq.** Class Deputy Inspector of Schools.
 32 **Wilson, H. W., Esq., ph.d., f.c.s.,** Professor of Physical Science, *Presidency Col-*
 F.G.S. *lege, Madras. -*
 33 **Wyatt, Rev. T. J.** 5. P. <?, *Trichinopoly.*

BOMBAY.

- 1 **Apte, Mr. Y.S.** Superintendent, *New English School, Poona.*
 2 **Beatty, Bev. Win., M.A.** Missionary of the *I. P. Church, Ahmedabad.*
 3 **Bengali, Sorabji Shapurji, Esq., C.I.E.** J. P. of *Bombay.*
 4 **Bhandarkar, Professor R.G., M.A.** Professor, *Elphinstone College, Bombay.*
 5 **Bhave, Mr. Yaman Prabhakar** Head Master, *Native Institution, Poona.*
 6 **Collet, Miss L. R.** JWY Superintendent, *Female Training College,*
Ahmedabad.
 7 **Cooper, Mr. Manekji Bejanji** High School, *Bombay.*
 8 **Desai, Ajnbalal Sakarlal, Esq., M.A., Judge of Ftsnagar,**
 LL.B.
 9 **Desai, Gopalji Surbhai, Rao Bahadur .** Deputy Educational Inspector, *Kathiawar.*
 10 **Fulton, E. M. H., Esq.** Registrar, 1%/& (?oar£ (Appellate Side), *Bom-*
bay.
 11 **Furdoonjee, Nowrozjee, Esq., Pam** School Association.
 12 **Ghulam Muhammad Munshi, Haji .** *Bombay.*
 13 **Giles, E., Esq.** Educational Inspector, *N D.*
 14 **Huilgole, Bhujangrao K., Rao Bahadur** Principal, *Training College, Dharwar.*
 15 **Hume, Revd. R. A.** American Marathi Mission, *Ahmednagar.*
 16 **Kunte, Mr. M. M.** Acting Principal, *Gujarat College.*
 17 **Mackiehan, Revd. D.** Principal, *Free Church Mission Institution,*
Bombay.
 18 **.Meunn, R»t. R>evd. L.,s«j««, d.d..** Roman Catholic Bishop of *Bombay.*
 19 **Mitchell, Mrs.** Lady Superintendent, *Female Training College,*
Poona.
 20 **Modak, V. A., Esq.** Head Master, *High School, Poona.*
 21 **Oxenham, R. G., Esq.** Principal, *Deccan College, Poona.*
 22 **Parekh, Mr. Gokuldas K.** Vakil, *High Court, Bombay.*
 23 **Patel, Mr. Mancherji Framji, B.A.** *Bombay.*
 24 **Pathak, Mr. Yithal Narayan, M.A.** Head Master, *High School, Satara.*
 25 **Patvardhan, S. V., Rao Saheb** Acting Educational Inspector, *Bombay.*
 26 **Ramabai, M r s** *Poona.*
 27 **Riv^, Revd. R., s.j.** St. Xavier's College, *Bombay.*
 28 **Rupram, Mahipatram, Rao Saheb** Principal, *Gujarat Training College, Ahmeda-*
bad.
 29 **Sarvajani Sabha** *Poona.*
 30 **Sayani, Rahimtula Muhammad, Esq.,** Solicitor, *High Court.*
 M.A., LL.B.
 31 **Shahabudin, Kazi, Khan Bahadur, c.i.e.** *Dewan of Baroda.*
 32 **Shirt, Revd. George*** *Hyderabad, Sind.*
 33 **Sorabji, Mrs. F.** Superintendent, *Victoria School, Poona.*
 34 **Squires, Revd. R.A., m*a.** Church Missionary Society, *Bombay.*
 35 **Tyabji, Hon'ble Badrudin, Barrister-at-** Member of Council, *Bombay.*
 Law.
 36 **Wedderburn, Sir W., Bart., Bo.c.s.** Judge of *Poona and Agent for Sardars.*
 37 **Wordsworth, Mr., B.A.** Principal, *Elphinstone College, Bombay.*
 38 **Ziegler, Revd. F.** Basel German Mission, *Dharwar.*

BENGAL.

- 1 **Abdul Latif Nawab, Khan Bahadur .** Deputy Magistrate.
 2 **Amir Ali, Hon'ble, Barrister-at-Law.**
 3 **Amir Husen, Maulvi Saiyid, Khan Ba-** Deputy Magistrate.
 hadur.

4	Ashton, Revd. J. P. .	London Missionary Society.	
5	Banerjea, Revd. Dr. K. M.		
6	Bhattacharjea, Revd. J. D..	Free Church of Scotland,	Hooghly District.
7	Bholanath Pal, Babu	Head Master, Hare School,	Calcutta.
8	Chandi Charan Banerjya, Babu .	Head Master,	Hindu School, Calcutta.
9	De Nie^ville, Mrs.*	Calcutta.	
10	Granguli, Babu Dwarkanatli.		
11	Good, Miss.*	Superintendent, Church of England Zenana Mission,	Barrachpore.
IS	Grierson, G. A., Esq., c.s.*	Joint Magistrate of Patna-	
13	Hastie, Revd. W., b.d. .	Principal j Church of Scotland General Assembly's Institution,	Calcutta.
14	Hoare, Miss A. M. .	Calcutta.	
15	Hobbs, Revd. W. A.....	Christian Vernacular Edit cation Society.	
16	Hook, Miss	Superintendent,	American Mission, Calcutta.
17	Johnson, Revd. W., B.A.	Superintendent, London Missionary Institution,	Calcutta.
18	Kristo Das Pal, Hon'ble, Rai Bahadur, C.I.E.		
19	Lafont, Revd. E., s.j., c.i.e	St.* Xavier's College,	Calcutta.
20	Larmine, W. R., Esq., c.s.	Magistrate of Burdwan.	
21	Macdonald, Revd. K. S., M.A.	Free Church of Scotland,	Calcutta.
22	Macdonald, Mrs. K. S.	Ditto	ditto.
23	Marrietti, Revd. Father* .	lessore.	
24	Mittra, Dr. Rajendralala, Raya Bahadur*		
25	Payne, Revd. J. E. .	London Missionary Society.	
26	Roberts, Revd. John*	Head Master, Government Normal School,	Ghera Punji, Assam.
27	Robertson, Revd. James	Principal, Free Church Institution,	Calcutta.
28	Sircar, Dr. Mahendra Lai, M.D.*.	Calcutta.	
29	Tawney, Charles H., Esq., M.A. .	Principal of Presidency College and Registrar,	Calcutta University.
30	Umes Chundra Datta, Babu		
31	Wheeler, Mrs.	Inspectress of Girls' Schools,	Bengal.

NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES AND OUDH.

1	Ali Hassan, Saiyid	Deputy Collector,	Bareilly.
2	Badley, Revd. B. H., m.a.	/ American Methodist Mission,	Lucknow.
3	Banerji, Babu Abinash Chandra, b.a, Additional Subordinate Judge, Agra. B.L.*		
4	Davis, Revd. B. ,	Principal Jai Narayan ³ & College,	Benares.
5	Din Dayal Tiwari, Pandit .	Deputy Inspector of Schools,	Allahabad.
6	Durga Parshad, Babu*	Honorary Magistrate,	Gorakhpur.
7	Durga Pershad, Munshi	Assistant Inspector of Schools,	Oudh.
8	Efcherington, Mrs. .	Late Inspectress of Government Schools	F.-W. P.
9	Hanuman Parshad, Munshi Lala	Pleader, High Court,	Allahabad.
10	Haris Chandra, Babu*	Benares.	
11	Hewlett, Revd. John, m.a.	Principal, London Missionary College,	Benares.
12	Ikbal Ali, Saiyid	Officiating Subordinate Judge of Gonda,	Oudh.
13	Jai Krishna Das, Raja, Bahadur, c.s.i. .	Deputy Collector.	
14	Johnson, Revd. T. S.*	Superintendent, Methodist Episcopal Church Missions,	Oudh and Cawnpur.
15	Kennedy, J., Esq.....	Collector of Gorakhpur.	
16	Lakshmi Shankar Misra, Pandit .	Professor of Physical Science,	Benares College.
17	Nesfield, J. C., Esq., m.a. .	Inspector of Schools, CW/L	
18	Parker, Revd. E. W. .	Superintendent of the Methodist Episcopal Mission,	Rohilkhand.
19	Saiyid Ahmed, Hon'ble* Khan Bahadur,		

20	SamuHa Khan, Maulvi	Subordinate Judge, Aligarh.
21	Sheoraj Singli, Raja, c.s.i.*	Kashipur.
22	Siva Prasad, Hon'ble Raja, c.s.i.	
23	Symphorien, Revd. Father .	.Rector, St. Peter's College, Agra.
24	Tota Ram, Babu	Pleader, High Court, Aligarh.
25	Uday Pratap Singh, Raja*	Raja of Bhinga.
26	Umesh Chandra Sanyal*	Professor of Mathematics, Benares College,
27	Valentine, Revd. Dr.	Superintendent, Agra Medical Missionary Training Institution.
28	Woodside, Revd. J. S.	American Presbyterian Mission, Patehgari*

PUNJAB.

1	Ahmad Shah, Khan	Extra Assistant Commissioner, Hoshiarpur.
2	Allnutt, Revd. S. S., m.a.*	Chambridge Minion, Delhi.
3	Anjuman Hamdardi Islamiya	Lahore.
4	Anjuman Islamiya* .	Amritsar.
5	Atar Singh Sardar, Chief of Bhadaur*	
6	Baden-Powell, B. H., Esq., c.s. .	Additional Commissioner of the Lahore Divi- sion.
7	Baring, Revd. F. H., m.a.	Church Mission, Batala.
8	Bhagwan Das, Pandit	Lahore.
9	Bikrama Singh, Sardar Kunwar, Baha dur, c.s.i.*	Ahluwalia.
10	Boyd, Miss Mary R.	Zenana Missionary, S. P. G. Mission, Delhi.
11	Chatterjee, Eevd, K. C.	Hoshiarpur.
12	Chatterjee, Mrs. Mary*	Ditto.
13	Coldstream, W., Esq., b.a.	. Deputy Commissioner of Simla.
14	Cordery, J. Graham, Esq.,*	. Commissioner of Peshawar.
15	Dayal Singh, Sardar*	. President, Indian Association, Lahore.
16	D'Eremao, Revd. Dr.*	. Lahore.
17	Faiz ul Hasan, Maulvi	. Head Master, Oriental College, Lahore.
18	Path Muhammad Beg, Mirza* .	. Kasur.
19	Forman, Revd. C. W., d.d.	. American Mission, Lahore.
20	French, Rt. Revd. Dr.	. Bishop of Lahore.
21	Golaknath, Revd. Mr.*	. Jalandhar.
22	Greenfield, Miss M. Rose .	. Ludhiana.' .
23	Gurdial Singh, Sardar	. Assistant Commissioner, Hoshiarpur.
24	Hari Singh, Babu	. Assistant Inspector of Schools, Lahore.
25	Holroyd, Lt.-Col. W. R. M.	. Director of Public Instruction, Punjab.
26	Hukm Singh, Sodhi	. Extra Assistant Commissioner and Mir Munski, Punjab.
27	Ikram Ullah Khan, Muhammad* -	. Honorary Magistrate, Delhi.
28	Ishwar Pershad, Pundit	
29	Jai Gopal Singh, Babu	. District Inspector of Schools, Amritsar.
30	Jukes, Revd. Worthington	. Church Mission, Peshawar.
31	Khem Singh Bedi, Baba, c.i.e.* .	. Ratoal Pindi.
32	Lala Mulraj, m.a.	. Officiating Extra. Commissioner, Gujrat.
33	Leitner, Dr. G. W., ll,d.	
34	Majlasi Islamia Lahore.
35	O'Brien, E., Esq.	. Deputy Commissioner of Multan.
36	R?him Khan, Dr., Khan Bahadur*	. Honorary Surgeon, Lahore.
37	Rodgers, C. J., Esq.*	. Amritsar.
38	Sahib Singh, Rai Bahadur*	
39	Sayad Muhammad Husain, Khalifa *	. J/*r MunsTii, PatUala State.
40	Sime, J., Esq.	. Principal, Government College, Lahore.
41	Smith, Revd. James*	. Baptist Mission, Delhi,
42	Smith, Mrs. Harriet S.* .	. Delhi,
43	Sayad Ahmad, Kazi Khan Bahadur	. AtiacM, Foreign Office.
44	Wanton, Miss	. Amritsar.
45	Winter, Revd. R* R.	. & P. (?). Cambridge Mission.

CENTRAL PROVINCES.

1	Banerji, Ambica Chliaran	Head Clerk, Deputy Commissioner's Office, Jubbulpore.
%	Branch, Miss	Church of England Zenana Mission, Jubbulpore.
3	Datta, Koilas Chandra, M.A.	Professor, Sanskrit College and High School, Jubbulpore.
4	Doveton, Major J. C.*	Conservator of Forests, Central Provinces.
5	Elliott, J., Esq.	Superintendent, Male Normal School, Jubbulpore.
6	Fraser, L., Esq., c.s.	Officiating Secretary to the Chief Commissioner, Central Provinces.
7	Govinda Kao Krishna Rao, Rao Saheb, Bhuskute.*	Sirdar of Timurni, Honorary Magistrate, 1st Class, Burhawpur, Nimar, Central Provinces.
8	Hodgson, Revd. T. R.	Missionary, Church Mission Society, Jubbulpore.
9	Hoy, Miss	Lady Superintendent, Female Normal School, Jubbulpore.
10	Lugard, H. J., Colonel* .	Deputy Commissioner, Nagpur.
11	Macdougall, Major J.*	Deputy Commissioner, Sambalpur.
15	Mendes, Dr. Lewis A., LL.D., Barrister-at-Law*	Jubbulpore.
13	Pelvet, Revd. F., c.c.	Nagpore.
14	Safdar Ali, Mr.*	Extra Assistant Commissioner, Central Provinces.
15	Thompson, G., Esq., B.A. .	Inspector of Schools, Northern Circle, Central Provinces.
16	Waman Rao Kolbatkar, B.A.	Managing Member, City Aided High School, Nagpur.
17	WMtton, Revd. D.	JTVw Church of Scotland, Nagpur.
18	Young, Mr. W.	President, -07^ School and College, and Manager, Rajlcumar School, Jubbulpore.

APPENDIX C.

LIST OF MEMORIALS AND OTHER DOCUMENTS RECEIVED BY THE EDUCATION COMMISSION.

Xo.	Place.	Memorialists.	Subject of Memorial.
MADEAS.			
	Madras	Executive Missionary Education Committee.	Forwarding- for consideration—i. Volume of correspond once with the Madras Government, &c.; ii. Papers relating to Madras Christian College; and iii. Answers to queries by the General Council on Education in India.
j * * * »		J M * * .	Urging reforms and farther carrying ont of despatch of 1354.
j) . * . *		Madras Native Association	In favour of extending education without religious interference.
■ J f * * *		*Muttuswajni Aiyar, Hon. T., C.I.E.	Convocation address at the Madras University.
19 . » « «		Ramanatha Aiyar, T. R.	On education generally, with reference to the questions of the Commission—Regarding Dr. Wilson's evidence.
J* * . .		Rodgers, Dr. Streenevas Row, P.	The existing system of education in the Government schools.
j . *		Triplicane Literary Society	Suggestions for the promotion of education.
3 > * * * t □		Trustees of Pacheappa's Charities	Sketch of the origin of the Institutions and urging increased aid to purely Hindu education.

No.	Place.	Memorialists.	Subject or Memorial.
MADRAS— <i>contd.</i>			
10	M a d r a s	Vijiarunga Mudaiyar, P. .	Early History of Education in the Madras Presidency.
11	Masulipatam .	Pad field, Revd. J. E., Principal, C. M. S. Training Institution.	Regarding Mr. V. Krisnamachariar's evidence.
12		Conference of the Missionaries of the Teluijn Church. Mission.	The difficulty of procuring sites for schools in rural districts.
13	Mylapur	44 signatories	Against Government withdrawal from higher education, and analysing classes of witnesses before the Commission.
14	Palghat	Sivaram Aiyar, Nellikerry C., Member, Local Fund Board, Malabar.	Answers to Commission's questions.
15	Perpengady .	H. H. Rama Yarma, Raja of Perpengady.	Memorandum advocating increased fees for higher, and the extension of primary and female education.
16	Rajamundry .	Theistic Society	The operations of the Society.
17	Salem	Phillips, Rev. M., Missionary, L.M.S.	Regarding Dr. Bradshaw's evidence.
18	Tanjore	People's Association	Against Government withdrawal from higher education, &c.
19	Tindivanam .	Wyckoff, J. H., Manager. American Mission School.	Statement reirar.ling the establishment of the school and the consequent abolishment of the Government Taluk School.
20	Tinnevely District .	Verdier, J., Catholic Priest	On the necessity for frequent inspection and speedy payment of grouts in case of village schools.
21	Trichinopoly .	Catholic Bishops of Southern India.	Views on certain important points in the outline for Provincial Reports.
22	Trichoor	Sankariah, A., b.a., f.m.u., President Pounder, Hindu Sabha.	Forwarding copy of letter to the Private Secretary to the Viceroy and inemorandm on higher Education. Offering to take over charge of the Government College, Calicut, and Government High School, PalghauL
BOMBAY.			
1	Ahmedabad .	Ahmedabad Association	Pointing out inequalities in the distribution of educational funds, and suggesting improvements in inspection and vernacular standards
2		Gujarat College Fund Committee	Urging the establishment of a College at Ahmedabad for Gujarat.
3	3* . *	Gujarat Vernacular Society	Account of the Society, and opposing the withdrawal of Governweut from higher education.
4	»	Mission S c h o o l s	Account of the schools.
5	» ' . *	Municipality .	Address, showing Municipal contributions to education.
6		Shastris .	Urging the establishment of Sanskrit Colleges and the employment of more of the old race of Pandits.
7	Amednagar .	Revd. R. A. Hume .	A letter with reference to the Government Rules on elementary and intermediate instruction.
8	Baroda	Kazi Shahabudin, Khan Bahadur, C.I.E.	State of education among the Muhammadans of the Bombay Presidency.
9	Bhaunagar .	Vithabai Sakharatn Chowdari, "is" /	Note on State Education in India.
10	Bombay	Head Mistress. Anjuman-Mslam	Female education.
11	» * . *	Anjuman-i-Tahzib	State of education among the Muhammadans of the Bombay Presidency.
12			Urging the admission to the public service of Muhammadans without insisting on & good knowledge of the English or limiting the nge to 25.
13	J * . * . *	Bankers, Shroffs, Merchants and Traders.	The want of trained men for banking and mercantile institutions.
H	s »	Bishop of Bombay .	Urging the admission of Native Christian children to Government schools.
15	" . . *	Padabhai Naoroji	Note on Education.
16	"	East Indian Association, Bombay Branch,	The substitution of Native agency for European with a view to economy, the promotion of female education, and the provision of a "conscience clause" ia the grant-in-aid rules.
17	" a	Fort High School	The origin and development of the Port High School
18	19	Hormusjee Jehangtr, Proprietor and Head Master, Bombay Proprietary School.	Account of the school.

Eo.	Place.	Memorialists.	Subject of Memorial.
BOMBAY—contd.			
*9	Bombay	Parsee Girls' School Association .	Origin and progress of the seminaries in their charge.
20		Paterson, C. A., Esq., M.A., LL.B., Advocate, Principal of the General Assembly's, Institution.	The working of the Bombay grant-in-aid system.
21		Prarthana Samaj	Account of the operations of the Samaj.
22		Sakha ram Arjun Lai, Hony, Asst. Surgeon to H. E. the Viceroy.	Sanitation, personal cleanliness, modes of punishment, &c.
*3		Squires, Revd. H. C., M.A.	Statement regarding education.
24		Various .	The system of education in Bombay as it affects the supply of commercial clerks, agents, and the accountants.
25		West, Hon. Mr. Justice, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Bombay.	Remarks suggested by the questions of the Commission.
26		Bombay Missionary Conference .	Position of aided education in the Bombay Presidency.
27		Parsee Benevolent Institution	Address, with a recommendation to modify the present form of Matriculation Examination, and to introduce such subjects in schools as would make students fit for the ordinary business of life.
28		The Hon. Kao Saheb V.N. Mandlik, c.s.i.	Answers to the Commission's questions.
29		Niti Prasaraka Mandali	Recommending that books containing immoral subjects should not be taught in the schools.
30		Haji Ghulam Muhammad, Mushi.	Recommending the introduction of the marks of punctuation in the Muhammadan languages.
31	Karachi	Inhabitants	The educational wants of Sindh.
32	Kathiawar	Major H. L. Nutt, Assistant Political Agent.	Statement regarding trade education.
33	Poona .	R. A. Squires, Esq.	Remarks on his answers given to the questions of the Commission.
34		Bernard, Miss Eleanor, Zenana Mission.	Statement regarding education.
35		Conference of Indigenous School Masters.	Address of the delegates.
3<5		Muhammadan inhabitants of the City and Cantonment.	Address.
37		Phooley, Joteerao Govindrao	Female Primary Education.
38		Promoters of the New English School.	Aims of the promoters.
39		Shastris and Laity of Poona .	Urging the encouragement of Sanskrit learning and re-establishment of the old Patshalas.
40		Sorabji, P., Superintendent, Victoria High School.	Origin and objects of the Victoria High School.

BENGAL.

1	Backergunj .	* *Hitaishini Sabha .	Female education.
2	Bhagulpore .	• Inhabitants	Praying for the establishment of a high school.
3	»	• * National Muhammadan Association.	Muhammadan education.
4	Calcutta	* . ?	Bethune School.
5	» • •	• Bhoodeb Mookerjee, Hon., C.I.E.	Language of school-books in Behar.
6	n • *	■ * Kishan Lai Sarkar, M.A., Pleader, High Court.	Advocating the use of the vernacular as the medium of public instruction.
7	11 * *	□ ■ Macdonald, Rev. K.S.	The education despatch of 1854, and primary education.
8	Cherra Punji (Assam)	* Welsh Calvinistic Methodist Society.	Operations of the Society.
	Fandpur	. . . * Suhrud Sabha	Female education.
9	Jessore	* * Jessore Union	The promotion of female education, and of physical and moral education.
10	Maimensingh	□ - Sa. Tnmi la. ni Sahhn.	School of agriculture; physical and moral training.
n	Muzofiarpur .	* Muhammadan inhabitants.	Endowment funds of mosques, &c., in case of "wastage/" should be partly applied to Muhammadan education.
12	North Bengal	• • North Bengal Union ,	The advancement of female education, physical and moral education, and mass education.
	Paschim Dacca	* * Hitakari Sabha . . .	Female education.
*3	Sant&listan ,	• * Campbell, Bev. A. .	The education of the aborigines.

No.	Place.	Memorialists.	Subject of Memorial.
BENGAL— <i>oontd.</i>			
	Sylhet Vikrampur	* Sylhet Union * Sammilani Sabha *A joint memorial.	Female education. Ditto.
NORTH-WEST PROVINCES AND OUDH.			
i	Agra	Bar	Against the abolition of Agra College.
2		Citizens .	Ditto.
3		Municipal Commissioners	Ditto.
4		Public Meeting	Ditto.
5		Students	Ditto.
6		Government correspondence	Endowment Fund of Agra College.
7		341 signatories .	In favour of Hindi.
8		280 „	Ditto.
9	Agra and other Districts	190 „	Ditto.
10		154 „	Ditto.
11	3)	110 „	Ditto.
12	Agra Muthra, and neighbouring Districts.	Public Meeting	Against the abolition of Agra College.
13	Ajmere	80 signatories .	In favour of Hindi.
14	Aligarh	Bharat Barshia National Association.	Ditto and professional training.
15	Aligarh.	Bhasha Improvement Society (Bhasha Sambardhani Sabha).	Address of Welcome.
16		Ditto .	In favour of Hindi.
17		Hindu Residents .	Ditto.
18		Kulshrist Boarding House Committee.	Extension of the grant-in-aid system to boarding-houses.
19		Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College Fund Committee.	Address of Welcome.
20		Muhammadan community in the zillahs of Aligarh Mid Bulandshahr.	In favour of high education, religious neutrality, and Urdu.
		Muhammadan Association of Rurbi and Mirat.	
21		Saiyid Ahmad, Hon., Khan Bahadur, c.s.i.	On University education.
22		Sat Dharmavalambini Sabha	In favour of Hindi.
23		Students of the Government High School.	Against the abolition of the High School.
24		980 signatories .	
25		554 «	
26		73 „	
27	Aligarh and other Districts.	60 „	> In favour of Hindi.
28	>> *»	34 „	
29	Allahabad	Inhabitants and residents of the District.	
30		Keene, H. G., Esq., c.r.E.	Note regarding Bishop French's proposed ethics on a theistic basis.
31		Managing Committee of the Kayasth P&tshala.	Address.
32		Municipality	Ditto. and statement of municipal contributions to education.
33		Munshi Sadasubh Lai, late Government Translator, North-Western Provinces.	Answers to some of the Commission's questions.
34	Almora .	Budden, Rev. J. H .	Remarks upon education in the Province of Kumaun.
35	Anupshahr	609 signatories	
36	Azimgarh	6,355 79	
37	Badaon	290 3*	
38	Bahadurgunj	152 77	
39	Ballia	224 77	
40		216 JJ	
41		90 79	
42	Banda	1,803 51	
43		832 77	
44		1,250 77	\ In favour of Hindi.
45		34-0 77	
46		263 77	
47		145 3?	
48		107 5f	
49	Banda District	700	
50	3J *	511 *9	
51	Bareilly	170 79	
52		105 „	
53		45 77	
54	Benares	a of Benares Pandi	Ditto and the Devanagari character.
55		155 signatories	

REPORT OF THE EDUCATION COMMISSION.

Ko.	Place.	Memorialists.	Subject of Memorial.
NORTH-WEST PROVINCES AND OUDH— <i>contd.</i>			
56	Benares	Biresbwar Mitra, Pleader, High Court, North-Western Provinces.	Letter and answers to the Commission's questions.
57		Kedarnath Palodhi, Babo, late Superintendent, Wards' Institution, Benares.	Answers to some of the Commission's questions.
58	Bijnor	300 signatories.	
59	Bilaspur	Arya Samaj, 1,651 signatories	
60	Bisalpur	96 signatories .	In favour of Hindi.
61	Bithur	622 "	
62	Brindaban	450 "	
63	Bulandshahar	750 "	
64		Growse, F. S., c.i.e.	Notes on the Education question,
65	Bundelkhand	255 signatories .	
66	Cawnpur	Inhabitants of the City and Districts.	favour of Hindi.
67		Maulvi Sayid Fureed-ud-din Ahmed, Subordinate Judge, Cawnpur.	Memorandum on education in India, especially in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh*
68		880 signatories	
69		410 "	
70	»»	in »	In favour of Hindi.
71	Chandos	126 3J	
72	Chunar	33 >»	
73	Dehra Dun	no "	
74	Delhi	Keegan, Rev. W.	Remarks on Vernacular schools at Sirdh- <u>arrd.</u>
75	Deoband	385 signatories	
76	Domanpur	600 "	
77	Etah	1,003 "	
78	Etawah	195 "	
79	Farukhabad	Arya Samaj, 1,432 signatories	
80		386 "	
81		3,800 signatories ") In favour of Hindi.
82		902 "	
83	Farokhuagar	160 "	
84	Fatehpur	1,130 "	
85	»»	87 .1	
86	Ferozpur	1,440 "	
87	Gabmar	1,998 "	
88	Garmoktasar	290 "	
89	Ghazipur	Literary Association	Ditto, high education and physical training.
90		6,120 signatories	
91	Gokul	265 ji	
92	Gorakhpur	520 "	
93	Govardhan	200 ") In favour of Hindi.
94	Hardoi	Union Club	
95	Hatras and Atroli	23 60 signatories	
96	Jaipur	621 "	
97	Jauupur	202 "	
98		Head Master, Church Mission School.	Correspondence relating to the establishment of a Government school at Jauupur with note by Mr. G. E. Ward.
99	Jhansi	80 signatories	
100	Kaliganj	28 "	
101	Khair	223 "	□ In favour of Hindi.
102	Khuija	853 "	
103	Kosganj	360 "	
104	Kosi	Arya Samaj	Origin of the Aiya Samaj; list of branches and of Hindi books published.
105	Lucknow	White, M. J., Esq., Principal, Canning College.	Remarks by himself and colleagues on some of the Commission's questions.
106		1435 signatories	
107		1*241 "	» \
108		231 "	
109	Majholi	700 "	
110	Masanagar	48 "	
111	Masuri	Meerut Association	
112	Meerut	Devauagari Piacharini Sabha	
113		Des-Upakarine Sabha, and)In favour of Hindi.
114		1,000 signatories.	
115		56 "	
116	Meerut District	1,016 "	
117	r>	1,016 "	
118	93	1,000 "	
119	Mirzapur	850 "	
120		Maulvi Zainul Abidin, Subordinate Judge of Mirzapur.	Answers to the Commission's questions

No.	Place.	Memorialists.	Subject of Memorial.
NORTH-WEST PROVINCES AND OUDH— <i>c&ncl</i> d.			
121	Moradabad	Arya Samaj, and 1,043 signatories	
122	"	300 signatories	
123	"	3	
124	Mot	140	
125	Muthra	94	
126	"	286	
127	"	35	
128	Nana	80	
129	Naini Tal	Satya Dharma Pracharini Sabha,	
130	Neemuch	526 signatories	
131	Raya	49	
132	Rewah	390	
133	Saharanpur	05	(In favour of Hindi.
134	Sarsa	136	
135	Shahjabanpur	2,804	
136	"	760	
137	Shairgarh	200	
138	Shekhupura	675	
139	Sikandarpur	315	
140	Sikanderabad	150	
141	Sikandra Rao	168	
142	Sikarpur	42	
143	Srinath Dwara	Students of local in	
144	"	Ucbit Karani Society	
H5	Udaypur	42 signatories.	
PUNJAB.			
	Abbottabad.	Anjuman of Hajara, and 71 others.	In favour of Urdu.
	Amritsar	Honorary Magistrate, and 9,000 inhabitants.	" Hindi.
	Amritsar District	Secretary of the Muawanat-i-Urdu on behalf of 10,258 residents.	Urdu.
	Bandla, Ghoghar, and Chandpur.	314 residents.	Hindi.
5	Batala	53	
6	Bhadaur	Sardar Atar Singh, c.i.E., Chief of Bhadaur.	Gurmukhi.
7	Bhowarna	219 residents	Hindi.
8	Dakha	247 signatories	Gurmukhi.
9	Daska	Munsif, and 33 others	Urdu.
10	Dasna	Secretary, Bhasha Sabha, and 95 others.	Bhasha.
11	Delhi.	Delhi Literary Society	Statement with reference to the Commission's questions.
12		Popular Language Advocate Committee, and 9,718 signatories.	In favour of Urdu.
13	Dera Gazi Khan	4,825 inhabitants.	Hindi.
14	Dera Ismail Khan	300 residents	Urdu.
15	"	2,200	
16	"	President of the Bharatri Sabha, and 1,550 others.	Hindi.
17	Domeli, Fort Rohtas and Malot.	624 residents.	
18	Farukbnagar	Raises, bankers, and merchants.	the Devanagari character.
19	Ferozpur	Extra Assistant Commissioner, and 1,139 others.	Bhasha.
20	Gadb Jamula	202 inhabitants.	Hindi.
21	Gujranwala.	Extrajudicial Assistant Commissioner, and 1,000 others.	Hindi Bhasha.
22		Head Registration Clerk, and 1,000 others.	
23		Extra Assistant Commissioner, and 1,300 others.	
24	Gnjrat	Anjuman Akkwan-us-Safa	Urdu.
25	"	and 2,000 others.	
26	"	and 500	
27	"	and 25,632 ostensible signatories.	
28	"	Bhasha Pracharini Sabha, and 5,506 others.	" Hindi.
29	"	Sikh inhabitants, 1,005	In favour of Panjabi in the Gurmukhi character in primary schools, and Dera* nagari, Persian and Urdu in middle schools; also the teaching of English in Sikh village schools.
30	"	Bev. John W. Yonngson, Church of Scotland Mission.	Grant-in-aid for the Scotch Mission School at Gnjrat.

No.	Place.	Memorialists.	Subject of Memorial.
PANJAB—contd.			
31	Gurdaspur	Anjuman Himayat Urdu, and 2,252 residents.	In favour of Urdu.
32	Hissar	66 „	j, Gurmukhi.
33	Husbiarpur	4j444 „	fjil<□ iim] . Hindi
34		641 inhabitants .	„ Urdu.
35	Jagadhri	50 .	„ Urdu.
36	JagTaon	1,609 „	„ Hindi.
37	Jallandar	279 residents ...)
38	Jhang	382 „	Answers to the Commission's questions.
39	„ and Maghiana	Anjuman-i-Rifai Am 1,584 inhabitants .	In favour of Hindi.
40	„	Judicial Assistant Commissioner, and 200 others.	„ Urdu.
41	„	500 inhabitants	„ Hindi.
42	„	75 „	„ Bhasha.
43	Kaithal	Municipal Committee, and 506 others.)
44	Kamalia	60 inhabitants	> „ Hindi.
45	K a n g r a	300 „	„ Urdu.
46	Karoal . .	852 „	„ Hindi.
47	Kartarpur and Phillour	^OOjj » »	„ Bhasha.
48	Khangerh	Anjutan-i-Hamdardi Islamiya, and 9,963 signatories.	Urdu.
49	Lahore	Anjuman-i-Panjab . . .	Resolutions passed with reference to the Education Commission.
50	«	ti n	Answers to the Commission's questions.
51	»	Bhasha Pracharini Sabha .	In favour of Panjabi.-
52	99 * m * 9	Graduates, under-graduates, and students of Government Colleges and Government and Mission High Schools, 446.	„ Hindi Bhasha.
53	99 □	Holroyd, Colonel	Letter in answer to Dr. Leitner's evidence.
54	99 *	Indian Association	High education in the Panjab.
55	»	Lahore Arya Samaj .	Answers to the Commission's questions.
56	> 1 *	Leitner, Dr. G. W* .	History of indigenous education in the Panjab.
57	39 * * * *	Narain Singh, Pleader	In favour of Bhasha.
58	> 1 * □ □ *	Panjab Brahma Samaj	Answers to the Commission's questions.
59	* * *	3,909 residents	In favour of Urdu.
60	jj □	7 « * *	„ Bhasha.
61	« * * * *	Sat Sabha	Answers to the Commission's questions.
62	J * □	t > * . . .	J
63	» * 1 * *	„ and 500 signatories .	> In favour of Panjabi.
64	J > *	Sikh National Association)
65	» * *	Sri Guru Singh Sabha	„ Gurmukhi.
66	» * □ *	„ and 25,000 signatories .	„ Hindi Bhasha.
67	Lal&musa	Pan jab Northern State Railway clerks, and 43 others.	„ Gurmukhi.
68	Ludhiana	Lumbardars and zaminders, 105	„ Hindi Bhasha.
69	„	2,033 inhabitants .	£ JJ K H U O *
70	„	55 „	„ Bhasha.
71	Malwa	75 „ □ . *	„ Urdu.
72	Montgomery .	President, Urdu Society, and 5,713 others.	f
73	Multan	4,252 inhabitants .	> „ Bhasha.
74	„	35 ~ « * * □	J
75	Muzaffargarh .	31 „	Answers to the Commission's question s.
76	Northern Pan jab	10 missionaries .	In favour of Hindi.
77	Nurpur	347 residents . .	Answers to the Commission's questions.
78	Pan jab	Sri Guru Singh Association	In favour of Urdu.
79	Pasrur	75 inhabitants .	„ Urdu.
80	Quetta .	Bhagabat Sabha, and 279 signatories.	„ Urdu.
81	Ramnagar	1,000 residents	„ Urdu.
82	Rawalpindi .	Lala Shanker Das, Head Teacher, Vernacular Middle School, and 1422 inhabitants.	„ Hindi.
83	„	Students, 210 .) „ Hindi.
84	„	1,541 residents	„ Hindi.
85	Rewari	Kaistha Sabha, and 3,287 others.	„ Hindi.
86	Rohtak	Head Accountant, Sirhind Canals, and 92 others.	„ Hindi.
87	Rnpar	□ 2,000 inhabitants .	i
88	Shahpur	800 „ - 552 „ ...	„ Bhasha.
89	Shtijabad	Rev. W. Harper, B.D., Church of Scotland Mission.	„ Hindi.
90	Sudkoi	850 inhabitants	Statement regarding the Scotch Mission City School.
91	„	So i > ...	In favour of Hindi.
92	„	9® ^ » * * *	„ Urdu.
93	Subathu	„	„ Hindi.
94	„	„	„ Hindi.
95	„	„	„ Hindi.
96	„	„	„ Hindi.
97	„	„	„ Hindi.
98	„	„	„ Hindi.
99	„	„	„ Hindi.
100	„	„	„ Hindi.

No.	Place*	Memorialists.	Subject of Memorial.
<i>PANJAB—conoid.</i>			
95	Wazirabad	Anjuman-i-Islamiya, and 700 others.	In favour of Urdu.
96	„ and Sodhra	1,265 inhabitants ,	„ Hindi.
RAJPUTANA.			
1	Ajmere and Mairwara	Missionaries of the United Presbyterian Church of Scotland.	Answers to Commission's questions.
MISCELLANEOUS.			
1	Berlin	Lord Amphill, British Ambassador.	Papers on State education in Prussia.
2	London	General Council on Education in India.	First Report, 1881.
3	»>	Rev. J. Johnston	Our educational policy in India.
4	» *	w •	On the abolition or transference of Government colleges and high schools in India.
5	»	» ft ...	The higher education and the education of the masses—a reply to a letter from the Maharaja of Travancore to the Governor of Madras.
6	Tra van core	H. H. Rama Varma, g. c. s. I., Maharaja of Travancore.	A cursory notice of certain statements in the above reply.

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(For details by Provinces for 1970*71 and 1881-9*, see next Table.)

NATURE OF THE MAINTAINING AGENCY.	Arts Colleges, English and Oriental.		Professional Colleges and Schools other than Normal Schools.		Secondary Schools.		Primary Schools.		Indigenous Schools.		Normal Schools and Classes.		TOTAL.	
	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	Number of Institutions.	Number of Pupils.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
IN THE YEAR 1855. < Departmental	15	3,246	13	912	169	18,335	1,202	40,041	MI	...	7	197	1,406	62,731
1855. < Aided and Inspected		MI	32	2,496	36	2,342	68	4,835
\ Extra-Departmental	6	P	...	* * *	80	12,970	572	54,540	47,866	788,701	...	1 * 1	49,524	856,2x1
TOTAL	21	3,246	13	912	281	33,801	2,810	96,923	47,866	788,701	7	197	50,998	923,780
(Departmental	26	1,869	24	2,613	780	53,382	9,467	400,062	M *	IM	6;§	3,892§	10,304	461,818
1870*71 < Aided and Inspected	*9	2,025	2	213	2,290	75,326	9*5*7	286,225	126	2,806	30	1,476	11,984	368,071
\ Extra-Departmental	IM		tit		* M	...	MI	* M-	t	t	60,764	1,064,934
TOTAL	45	3,894	26	2,826	3,070	128,708	18,924	686,287	126	2,806	97	5,368	83,052	1,589,823
f Departmental	38	4,252	52	527	363	44,605	13,882	681,835			83	2,814	15,4*8	734,033
1881*82 < Aided and Inspected	32	2,953	[18	J,D20]	2*543	72,439	70,852	1,470,476	73	3,548	25	h 159	73,525	1,550,575
\ Extra-Departmental	ft		IM	IM	10	2,7*5	6	2,000	.25.150	354,655	...	* * 1	25,166	359,370
TOTAL	70	7,205	52	5*7	3,916	119,759	84,740	2,154,311	25,223	358,203	108	3,973	114,109	2,643,978

* In the year 1855, British Burma and All Native States, such as Travancore, Mysore, Haidarabad, Baroda, Indore, Gwalior, Jaipur, &c., that administer their own system of education.
 * In the year 1881, enclosed in square brackets relate to unattached professional and technical institutions that are excluded from the scope of the Commission's Report. They are therefore omitted from the grand total of this Table,
 number of unattached professional and technical institutions in this year was large; but they cannot be shown separately from other schools for the whole of India. See next Table,
 attached Practising Schools.

Estimate of the Extent of Education in India * at the end of the official year in and at the end of the official

(Schools for Europeans and Eurasians are omitted from the statistics here)

PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES (DEPARTMENTAL, AIDED AND INSPECTED).

PROVINCE AND NATURE OF TERRITORY	NATURE OF INSTITUTION	ENGLISH AIDED SCHOOLS		PROFESSIONAL COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS, OTHER THAN NURSING SCHOOLS		SECONDARY SCHOOLS		PRIMARY SCHOOLS		INDIGENOUS SCHOOLS		NORTHWEST FRONTIER PROVINCE SCHOOLS AND CLASSES		
		No. of Institutions	No. of Pupils	No. of Institutions	No. of Pupils	No. of Institutions	No. of Pupils	No. of Institutions	No. of Pupils	No. of Institutions	No. of Pupils	No. of Institutions	No. of Pupils	
MADRAS	Departmental Missionary Native	302	491	IX 16 9	1,631 1,409 692	83	2,093						13	
	TOTAL		491	36	3,73*	83	*093							
	Departmental Missionary Native	288	527	5630	3,333 18,893	985 3,353*	5,463 84,239	Aided and inspected indigenous schools included in columns 8 and 9.					79*	
	TOTAL	418	5* 7	22,126	3,45<>	8g*7**						x6		
	Departmental Missionary Native	11 780	e[9 639]	159a 6,288	1,2636 4,975	Aided and inspected indigenous schools included in columns 8 and 9.						7	<561 m	
	TOTAL	1,707	cEX*	767]	764 24,289	14,4*6 360,643							956	
	Departmental Missionary Native	103	311	33	3,183	220d	17,669						76	
	TOTAL	103	3xi	7	3,578	*56	20,0X1							
	Departmental Missionary Native	3 250	399	147a	9,045	3,3076	139,653	High-class indigenous schools.						490
	TOTAL		47	213	62a	6,48a	438	39,975					55	
Departmental Missionary Native	311 139 25	e[7 1,061]	1470 109a	11,170 9,373	3,81id 1584x	243*59 85,181						6 433		
TOTAL	475	1711	*56	*0»S43	5,265	329*140	73 3,548					3 130		
Departmental Missionary Native	86 921	110	736	8,853	69	3,379								
TOTAL		02X	73	*853	69	3»*79								
Departmental Missionary Native	13 5	1,377	270a 1,400a	10,9*6 26,185	317* 4,0076	13,213 113,275						38 1344		
TOTAL	18	1,547	14	1,67*	37,*5i	4*3*4	326,488					40 *71*		
Departmental Missionary Native	18 2,394	<19 1,463	245* 8,990	37 36 18,836	Aided and inspected indigenous schools included in columns 8 and 9.							673 376		
TOTAL	3,827	1,408]	*89*	44,880	53,669	992,707						1,048		
Departmental Missionary Native	1,930	62	4,668	830	17,000									
TOTAL	1,920		4,668	830	17,000									
Departmental Missionary Native	76 633\$ 831±	310	886 2086	11,481 16,947	T4,307a 143a	148,126 5,126	Aided and inspected indigenous schools included in columns 8 and 9.					4*7 90		
TOTAL	J,530	296	*8,4*8	4,450	153»*5*							*3 517		
Departmental Missionary Native	599 307	cD 1S3J	523a ff7a	6,489 2,736	5^616 2846	197,060 16,178	Aided and inspected indigenous schools included in columns 8 and 9.					18 306		
TOTAL	906	593	9*3	5,848	213,238							21 395		
Departmental Missionary Native					579									
TOTAL					579									
Departmental Missionary Native			1016 476	9,404 5,408	1,254* 490	50,547 18,507						307 198		
TOTAL			148	14,812	1,744	69,054	443					405		
Departmental Missionary Native	103 122	368] 4]	189a #35«1	4,974 994	1,5496 #2786	14,616						347 169		
TOTAL		ctjS'	3»9J	5,968	1,827	102,867						4»		

... returned, 1001 boys in Primary and Secondary Schools were receiving technical instruction in these Special Schools. ... are incomplete. But in and near Calcutta the number of such institutions is stated to have been not less than 39. For the ... this ... of Schools since 1870-71 was partly due to difference in the clarification of Schools in the two years under comparison. ... differences in the classification of Schools in the two years in question. ...

Since the Department of Public Instruction was first constituted in the several Provinces, the years 1870-71 and 1881-82.

(For 1881-82 and as far as possible from those of the two former years.)

EXTBA-DEPARTMENTAL SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES (UNAIDED AND UNSPECTED BY THE DEPARTMENT).															
TOTAL,		ABTBS (ORIENTAL & ENGLISH ATTACHED SCHOOLS)		SECONDARY SCHOOLS		PBD/CABX SCHOOLS		ISD/GIB/00S SCHOOLS		NORKAL/SHOOLS ATT'D CLASSES		TOTAL		GRAND TOTAL	
No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.
14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
106	4,538	27	2,687	1,112	32,843	12,498	161,687	1,139	...	106	4,538
106	4,538	30	3,687	1,112	32,843	12,498	161,687	1,139	...	106	4,538
106	4,538	NO. of schools.	NO. of pupils.	12,624	149,003	106	4,538
106	4,538	1,624	49,003	22,624	49,003	106	4,538
106	4,538	7	7	7	7	2,828	54,064	7	7	2,828	54,064	106	4,538
106	4,538	2,828	54,064	2,828	54,064	106	4,538
106	4,538	7	7	128	6,068	3,387	70,514	6,975	74,986	106	4,538
106	4,538	x	2,022	176	9,475	2,387	70,514	7,875	74,986	106	4,538
106	4,538	Ml	No. of schools.	No. of pupils.	106	4,538
106	4,538	240	12,184	...	2,922	77,000	13,624	89,184	106	4,538
106	4,538	240	12,184	...	2,922	77,000	13,624	89,184	106	4,538
106	4,538	106	4,538
106	4,538	20	7,715	2,300	4,012	78,755	4,012	83,470	106	4,538
106	4,538	10	7,715	2,300	4,012	78,755	4,012	83,470	106	4,538
106	4,538	22	0,054	199	8,514	25,000	500,000	8,514	500,000	106	4,538
106	4,538	22	6,054	199	8,514	25,000	500,000	8,514	500,000	106	4,538
106	4,538	34	...	357	9,971	35,000	700,000	5	96	35,357	700,000	106	4,538
106	4,538	357	9,971	35,000	700,000	5	96	35,357	700,000	106	4,538
106	4,538	7	7	7	7	4,283	57,305	p	...	4,283	57,305	106	4,538
106	4,538	4,283	57,305	4,283	57,305	106	4,538
106	4,538	13	1,029	74	3,235	3,935	25,000	3,935	25,000	106	4,538
106	4,538	3	1,029	74	3,235	3,935	25,000	3,935	25,000	106	4,538
106	4,538	106	4,538
106	4,538	23	3,550	...	5,173	58,837	5,173	58,837	106	4,538
106	4,538	7	7	7	7	7,127	68,305	7	7	7,127	68,305	106	4,538
106	4,538	7,127	68,305	7,127	68,305	106	4,538
106	4,538	3	1,178	11	523	5,034	30,196	E	...	5,034	30,196	106	4,538
106	4,538	3	1,178	11	523	5,034	30,196	5,034	30,196	106	4,538
106	4,538	70	3,641	4,133	50,558	7	7	4,133	50,558	106	4,538
106	4,538	70	3,641	4,133	50,558	7	7	4,133	50,558	106	4,538
106	4,538	7	7	7	7	6,362	86,023	7	7	6,362	86,023	106	4,538
106	4,538	6,362	86,023	6,362	86,023	106	4,538
106	4,538	6,362	86,023	6,362	86,023	106	4,538

d Including attached Middle Schools.
 e Including 3 Oriental Colleges with 729 pupils.
 f Including pupils in the Delhi College and in attached Secondary Schools.
 g Excluding Ajmir College with 4 pupils.
 h Figures taken from the Statistical Tables published by the Calcutta Missionary Conference in 1882.
 i The returns of these schools for 1856-57 stated to be incomplete.
 j The returns of these schools for 1856-57 stated to be incomplete.
 k Includes attached and other Primary Schools inseparable from the returns.
 l The Primary Department of Secocobry Schools in Bengal arerat&UTalifeefWBa as separate Schools. Hence the total shown above (59^92) exceeds tWv total given in General Tables 2a and sc.

j]The total number of unvisited Mianmaji Schools is believed to have been 45, all of them being primary. Before the close of 1881-83 the managers had registered
 □ State-akL

**Estimate of the Extent of Education in India * at the end of the official year, in which
and at the end of the official years I**

(Schools for Europeans and Eurasians are omitted from the statistics here)

PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES (DEPARTMENTAL, AIDED AND INSPECTED).

NAME OF PROVINCE AND TERRITORY OF THE MOUNTAIN	ABTS COLLEGS, ENGLISH AND OBISSETAL	PROFESSORIAL SCHOOLS OTHER THAN NORMAL SCHOOLS.		SECONDARY SCHOOLS.		PBIMABX SCHOOLS.		MIGRANT SCHOOLS.		NON-RESIDENTIAL SCHOOLS AND CLASSES.			
		No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.		
I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	
CENTRAL PROVINCES.	1862-63	97	1,235	1,063	409	11,054	735	7,811	9	190
	TOTAL	16	*,98	409	21,054	<735	7,811	9	*90	
	1870-71	46	5,347	1,091	795	41,402	34,952	7	342	
	TOTAL	56	6,788	1,886	7,399	7	*4*	
1881-82	1881-82	1	65	24	450	39	2,108	894	55,745	2,992	4	158	
	TOTAL	1	65	24	450	39	2,108	894	55,745	2,992	4	158	
	TOTAL	1	65	24	450	39	2,108	894	55,745	2,992	4	158	
	TOTAL	1	65	24	450	39	2,108	894	55,745	2,992	4	158	
1854-55	
1870-71	
1881-82	
TOTAL	
1855-56	
1870-71	
1881-83	
TOTAL	
1866-67	
TOTAL	
1870-71	
TOTAL	
1881-82	
TOTAL	
The Department of Public Instruction not having been constituted in the several Provinces in the same year, the total													
1870-71	25	1,869	2,025	2,613	780	53,382	9,407	400,062	126	2,806	57	3,892	
TOTAL	25	1,869	2,025	2,613	780	53,382	9,407	400,062	126	2,806	57	3,892	
1881-82	38	4,252	2,953	4,252	1,363	44,605	13,882	681,835	73	3,548	83	2,994	
TOTAL	70	7,121	4,978	6,865	2,143	97,987	23,289	1,081,897	199	6,354	140	6,886	

a lsdtai glawia PEiniay Departments of Secondary Schools.
 \$ RndhMBng ditto ditto.
 t Di«aimbers metewH in square brackets relate to unattached professional or technical institutions that are excluded from the scope of the Commission's Report. They
 tivrfornt omitted from the grand totals of this Table.
 rTThe Pawipeitll Committee's Eepoact considers these numbers to be very much exaggerated.
 /laetdas the following Schools and Training institutions for girls:
 Girls' Schools. Pupils. Train in? Schools. Pupils.
 Bombay. 318 with 318
 Bengal and Assam. 689 with 34
 F.W.O. Provinces and Oudi 461 with 180
 F.W.O. (mil Provinces) 461 with 180
 Soote 461 with 180
 AMBgtrif District* 47 with 180
 Total 2,127 with 802
 Total 661,344 38 76T
 The total number of girls at school was 126,349. For further details see SubridfcuQT
 in mixed schools.

General Table No. ib.

•e Department of Public Instruction was first constituted in the several Provinces, and 1881-82 – continued.

•n for 1881-82 and as far as possible from those of the two former years.)

EXTRA-DEPARTMENTAL SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES (UNAIDED AND UNINSPECTED BY THE DEPARTMENT).

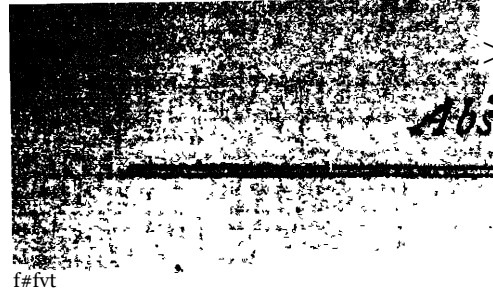
TOTAL		AKTB COLLEGES, ENGLISH AND ORIENTAL.		SECONDARY SCHOOLS.		PEIMABX SCHOOLS.		LITDIGMTOUS SCHOOLS.		NORIEAL SCHOOLS A2TD CLASSES.		TOTAX.		GRAND TOTAL.	
No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.
4	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	34	35	25	27	28	29
4*7 7 735	1*479 1,063 7,8**	4*7 7 735	**479 2,063 7,811
1,10*	46,993	Retin	Tis of unis	pected MIH	sionary Set	ools not a?	ailable.	HI	848	46,993
1,949	83,399	2,944	83,399
96*	58,549	f No MI	ssionary Se	oolB have	been return	led as unin	u,	58,549	**663
1430	*1,100	M30	81
figures given above for Bengal.															
figures given above for Madras.															
43	3,870	3,870
1,410	4*88°	5*623
M53	46,750	1,950	56,483
figures given above for Madras.															
34	*493	Statist	ics for unis	pected MIH	sionary Set	ools not a?	ailable.	34	**493
37	1,601	37	1,601
60	3**4*	Vo returns	of unispe	cted Missio	ary Schoo	s.	60	3**4*
63	3, *33	204	1703
*47	6,644	*47	6,644
*47	6,644	*47	6,644
344	14,133	344	*4**33
454	16,441	454	*6^4*
499	8,956	499	28,956
416	6,884	416	6,884
JPS	35,840	9*5	35,840

figures omitted.

No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.		
1,984	5*9*8 368,071	V» MI	...	III	60,764	1,064*934	60,764	*064^34	«*30* 7*,74«e	46x^18 **433,005		
...	8*9,880	60,764	*064,934	60,764	*064,934	83^5	**194833		
...	734**33	J3r4*	734.033		
3&&	*5,50,575	{:::	...	III io	3,715	6	2,000	25,150	354,655	*1*66	359^70	j- 98,69ns	x*9^948
8*903	*5,84,608	xo	**7*5	6	1,000	*5^50	354,655	^,166	359*370	tn4**«9t	**643^8

o The total number of Protestant Missionary institutions in 1870-71 and 1881-83 is given below, but we have no returns to show how many of them were aided and inspected or many were uninspected by the Department. No statistics of the Roman Catholic Schools are available:—

No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	A&TS COTXXGBS		ZATAITX		Theological m Tx&xrsrsra		SCHOOLS tOIt		GRAND TOTAL.			
		SCHOOLS BOYS.		SCHOOLS GIRLS.		Men.		Women.		Institu-	Pupils.		
		No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.				
120	1,129	120	1,129	263	2,663	59	59	22	572	8	211	**54*	53^96
148	1,813	148	1,813	434	4,344	2,029	2,029	18	781	*4*3	sMs
22	2,918	22	2,918	27	1,068	202	202	7	46	*33	7*4
40	3,077	40	3,077	67	3,041	366	366	7	89	M*	8	128	333
50	3,777	50	3,777	117	4,311	607	607	19	443	97*	693
75	4,117	75	4,117	189	6,355	431	431	19	276	97*	97*
91	4,483	91	4,483	222	7,081	388	388	3	63	78	344
121	5,000	121	5,000	222	7,081	388	388	3	63	!	»*	105	5**
143	5,500	143	5,500	222	7,081	388	388	3	63	14	303
34	40,075	34	40,075	664	6,644	1,300	1,300	4	13	14	303
38	40,075	38	40,075	664	6,644	1,300	1,300	4	13	14	303



General Table No. 2a.

Institutions and Scholars in the several Provinces of India* for the official year 1881-82.

Provinces	Males	Females	Total	Scholars		Total of columns 8 and 9		Gross Expenditure of Departmental Institutions		Total of columns 13 and 14	Total of column 16	Remarks
				Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Public Funds	Private Funds			
BOMBAY, >. J NATIVE STATES ,	15,359,939	15,575,830	30,935,775	407,069	34,590	441,659	17*78	6,85,056	3,09,651	39,94,707	#1	* Excluding Ajmir, British Burma and those Native States of India which administer their own system of education.
BOMBAY, >. J NATIVE STATES ,	8,500,281	7,960,387	16,460,668	351	22,176	34,490	34*96	54,998	3,19,371	33,74,269		t Including privtdo uniuspected solioolfj but excluding schools for Europeans and Eurasians, as also unattached oolleges and schools of a professional or technical oharacter. Tonhe excluded schools and colleges sec note at the end of Table 20.
BOMBAY, >. J NATIVE STATES ,	3,460,321	3,268,633	6,728,953	93	4,590	97,356	17*85		5,7*478	5,73,478		t The population of school-going ago is estimated at 15 per cent. or the total male and female population respectively.
BOMBAY, >. J NATIVE STATES ,	3,889,6		3,889,6	343	6,766	437,746	31*91	54,998	7,9*749	9,46,747		§ Tho European and Eurasian population is excluded. It amounted to 173,522 souls and was distributed as follows:
BOMBAY, >. J NATIVE STATES ,	33,888,051	34,337,665	68,225,716	13,387	8,883	22,270	8*35	26,321	36,33,974	55,59,395		Madras 33,739 Bombay » 29,381 Bengal 39,438 North-West Provinces and Oudh. 34,339 Punjab 39,597 Central Provinces 5,736 Assam 1,631 Coorg 5*5 Haidarabad Assigned Districts 756 TOTAL 732,836
N.-W. P. AND OUDH	10,187,148	8,633,692	18,820,840	8,113	9,353	17,466	ia'it		73,80a	13,68,754		! (The expenditure of private unispected schools, os also of unattached professional and technical institutions and of schools and colleges for Europeans and Eurasians, is excluded. The expenditure on the two last classes of institutions is given in a note at the end of General Table 30.
Punjab .	4,955,790	4,877,865	9,833,655	79	3,335	81,312	10*49	5,85,935	49,889	6,35,834		f Inclusive of all expenditure from Public Funds (Provincial, Local and Municipal) and of all expenditure from Fees, Endowments, &c., in Departmental Institutions.
CENTRAL PROVINCES.....	100,108	77,679	177,787	104	333	3,703	33*44	33,496	341	32,737		□* Excluding Pudukota Territory, with a total population of 302,127.
COORG	1,380,053	1,391,864	2,771,917	13	437	35,403	17*10		3,490	3,5*,396		ft Including the population of Aden, amounting to 34,860.
HAIDARABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS	1,671,9x7		1,671,9x7	903								JJ Excluding Janjira, Daphlapurand Khairpur States, with a population of 211,52; Baroda is also excluded.
TOTAL FOR INDIA*	153,599,939	155,758,830	311,358,769	1,058,654	1,649	2,707,653	106*48	10,844,637	11,86,646	119,664,837		§§ Excluding Kuch Behar, Hill Tipperah and the tributary mahals of Chota Nagpur, with ft population of 1,376,363. Tho area of the Sundarbans, estimated at 5,976 square miles, is also excluded.
TOTAL FOR INDIA*	153,599,939	155,758,830	311,358,769	1,058,654	1,649	2,707,653	106*48	10,844,637	11,86,646	119,664,837		fill Exclusive of 703 boys attending girls' schools and entered in column 8*

Category	English	Oriental	Total
HONORARY			
ARTS COLLEGES			
TOTAL			
REGULAR			
ARTS COLLEGES			
TOTAL			
M. W. P. AND MIDDLE			
ARTS COLLEGES			
TOTAL			
TOTAL OF COLLEGES			

Category	English	Oriental	Total
HONORARY			
ARTS COLLEGES			
TOTAL			
REGULAR			
ARTS COLLEGES			
TOTAL			
M. W. P. AND MIDDLE			
ARTS COLLEGES			
TOTAL			
TOTAL OF COLLEGES			

302 5021
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Number of Institutions.

Number of scholars on the roll on 31st March.

Average number on the rolls monthly during the year.

Average daily attendance.

English.

A classical language.

A vernacular language.

Number of Institutions.

Number of scholars on the rolls on 31st March.

Average number on the rolls monthly during the year.

Average daily attendance.

English.

classical language.

A vernacular language.

Detailed Return of Colleges, Schools and Scholars

Category	English	Oriental	Total
Number of Institutions			
Number of scholars on the rolls on 31st March			
Average number on the rolls monthly during the year			
Average daily attendance			
English			
classical language			
A vernacular language			

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Number of Scholars on
the rolls on 31st March, **S**
Average number on the
rolls monthly during
the year. **S'**
Average daily attend-
ance. **CQH**
English. ***3 215 S**
A classical lan-
guage. **I-*** **WCO** **ft**
FW **a** **#**
A vernacular lan-
guage. **Wg** **so**
GRAND TOTAL of Institu-
tions.
GRAND TOTAL of Scholars on
31st March. **i** **ft**
English. **TO** **N**
□ MW, ***** **ft**
A classical language. **S'S** **N**
A vernacular language. **WQ*** **S?**
02 **2?**
Hindus. **K>**
Muhammadans. **Wt-t**
83
Sikhs. **50**
P&reis.
Nativo Christians. **51**
©W
"8 Europeans and Eura-
sians." **055**
Others. **a**

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4
Excluding the At-
tending Officers and
Students of the
University of
Cambridge.

The Oriental Col-
lege of the Punjab
University, Lahore.

11/11/11
E. V. J.

1*1A>JLen&E]j- rriTi

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No.	LAIDED INSTITUTIONS UNDER REGULAR INSPECTION.										CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOLARS ON 31st MARCH ACCORDING TO RACE OR CASTE.									
	NUMBER OF SCHOLARS ON 31st MARCH EXAMINING					GRAND TOTAL OF SCHOLARS ON 31st MARCH EXAMINING					GRAND TOTAL OF SCHOLARS ON 31st MARCH EXAMINING					GRAND TOTAL OF SCHOLARS ON 31st MARCH EXAMINING				
	Number of scholars on the rolls on 31st March.	Average number on the rolls monthly during the year.	Average daily attendance.	English.	A classical language.	A vernacular language.	GRAND TOTAL of Institutions.	GRAND TOTAL of Scholars on 31st March.	English.	A classical language.	A vernacular language.	Hindus.	Muhammadians.	Sikhs.	Parsees.	Native Christians.	Europeans and Eurasians. [†]	Others.		
17	699	598	558	699	135	586	81	4,856	4,856	795	4,142	117	19		
18		
19		
20		
21		
22		
23		
24		
25		
26		
27		
28a		
28b		
28c		
28d		
28e		
28f		
28g		
29		

REMARKS.

* Excluding British Public Schools and their own system of education.
 † Attending schools for Native of India.
 ‡ In attached Middle Schools.
 § Exclusive of all pupils in attached Primary Schools.

1 The High and Middle Schools of Bengal include lower department pupils in the High Middle range, and 94,318 in the Primary range of instruction.

2 The School Department of the Punjab Oriental College.

3 Inclusive of pupils in Technical Middle and Primary Schools.
 4 Inclusive of pupils in Primary Schools.
 5 Inclusive of pupils in Primary Schools.

6 The average daily attendance of 24 Middle Schools in the Province of Bihar is 11,116.
 7 790 pupils in Middle departments of Primary Schools are invariably engaged in agricultural work from school hours under Primary Schools.
 8 Including nearly 70000 pupils in attached Primary Schools.
 9 Including 11,116 pupils in Bihar, attached to 844 primary schools.

General Table No. 2c.

i Province of India * for the official year 1881-82 —continued.

UNAIDED INSTITUTIONS UNDER REGULAR INSPECTION.										GRAND TOTAL OF SCHOLARS ON 31st MARCH		CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOLARS ON 31st MARCH ACCORDING TO RACE OR CREED.						Total
18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28a	28b	28c	28d	28e	28f			
8,375	7,708	6,495	4,460	189	8,375	1,481	63,395	34,113	715	63,203	50,932	4,973	—	6,376	370	7*4		
94,571	94,113	80,198	1,043	94,458	12,498	2,76,983	363	1,638	276,795	238,526	19,332	—	16,643	45	3,538			
237	342	213	ISO	237	35	1,897	1,104	71	1,563	313	427	—	1,348	-190	46			
6,3+5	6,070	4,775	5	6,345	472	18,468	III	18,433	12,644	427	—	—	5,0x4	26	357			
109,528	108,133	8x,68x	4-45	1231	*9,4*5	14,486	360,643	35,591	4,424	359,994	30=,405	24,63a	—	*9=3*5	63*	3,655		
70,544	67,894	51,851	...	87	70,457	5,013	u 313,771	...	160	313,611	363,416	39,331	...	3,517	i, **<	...		
4,*83	3,821	2,400	4,283	326	ft 19,917	19,9*7	15,747	1,366	...	1,932	684	3		
74,8*7	7*7*5	54	...	87	74,740	5,338	332,688	...	260	33*,5*8	*81,163	4*,557	...	iM49	2,200	7		
50,94*	53,1*4	45,435	*74	479	\$9,604	50,788	c 880,937	729	50,107	867,921	541,454	217,216	...	3,426	1	18,840		
3,007	1,869	*3,59	21	...	2,097	990	4,17,45*	396	413	17,164	*4,580	1,570	...	1,*75	*7	120		
62,038	55,033	45,784	195	479	61,701	51,778	898,389	V*5	50,518	885,085	656,034	*18,786	4,60*	8		
430	430	345	38s	55	293	140	14,340	13,093	3,796	10,952	9,836	3,339	874	153		
487	502	383	...	117	398	5,403	190,273	40	13,094	189,768	160,911	28,788	*M<	...	466	-..		
...	10	1,014	463	10	984	133	156	722	...		
34*	*75	305	342	292	7,712	12	80	7,674	4,545	JS 69<	458	...		
...	1,*07	933	385	*7*	933	5,845	*13, *38	12,608	16,980	*09,378	*75,4*5	34*979-	L...	*5,00	^33	*7*		
...	Ml	*7*	198	23,01g	7,697	8,761	^23,096	14,287	7,176	*^77	...	154	...		
...	1,322	70,641	19,673	70,641	35,m	28,378	6,185	140	...		
...	3	141	113	55	141	J	■ 2	134	2		
...	304	9,066	923	9,066	3,105	4,335	F-490	117	U9		
...	1,8*7	102,867	7,808	*9,411	1102,944	5*,584	39,79*	Q,os*	...	545	a		
37	*3	38	37	...	37	52	3,520	3,530	41	3,300	1,876	390	154	154		
3, X5»	3,086	1,99i	...	5	3,151	1,318	73,009	30	83	72,009	63,929	5,195	95	1		
...	1	91	60	...	74	9	**	80	3		
18	20	4	18	77	3,1*7	9	...	3,117	2,836	147	74	**;		
3, W6	3>>4*	*083	37	5	3, a0fi	*3,48	77*737	2,609	124	77,500	68,670	5,63*	403	57-		
...	34	e 697	347	...	684	240	13		
»27S	2,15	*777	ir	...	2,37s	1,246	3-S, Z76	45	1,3*4	36,080	27,892	5,475	503	3,406		
77	73	64	77	65	fS90	890	576	2	127	185		
»3S	*»39	i, a4x	...	XI	*3S*	*35*	38,182	4«	1,364	37,973	*8,468	6A77	918	3^06		
...	6	A346	34S	...	346	337	3	5	1*		
...	53	12,697	3,697	3,543	84	yr	...		
...	I j	26	3j	1	24		
-m**	60	3,069	...	346	...	3,069	z,88i	87	! xoo</td <td>...</td>	...		
...	3,544	2,117	...	35	2,637	87r	34»36oi	...	57	34,303	30,530 J	4,501	39	1		
...	12	3«8±	368	14	...		
Xjpt	*»544	2^117	...	35	2/37	883	34,7*8	...	57	34-67*	«30,8a» i	4,^3	9	5^		
«S,7«*	*44,*0	S^Sx	2,020	*54^4	82,9x6/	60,408	203,038	*043,142	m,598,34*	374,564	9,08*	&468	40,660	33iM3		

EJKIEUS.

* Excluding British Barms and »31 UfalTe StAtee that administet education. +1,941 girls. \$13,175 ffris. \$181 boys. B*x bo^R.

a 4,396 girls.

b 58 boyB.

c 30,744 girls.

^ 336 felfyir.

'r'''

i 77 pupils who wogr* eact learning tiro'er-uacalar languages have been resined by the ProTineid Committee as 154. * r

*68 girls. /345 girls.

g iSBOT*.

jk 1 girt. t 304 girls.

l 70 girls. fe 1 boy.

1 Exhdndg 59 ee"kood& ia Amir sneodea 3^09papU». - : fn

» ColaBHM da'e 730 papQI^ ltfw? tacked

i Province of India* for the official year 1881-82—concluded.

INAIDED INSTITUTIONS UNDER REGULAR INSPECTION.						GRAND TOTAL OF SCHOLARS ON 31ST MARCH LEARNING				CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOLARS ON 31ST MARCH ACCORDING TO RACE OR CREED								
17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28a	28b	28c	28d	28e	28f	28g	
...	294	799	195	16	790	584	42	172	144	16	
...	33	956	325	16	947	591	42	316	7	...	
120	124	115	46	13	120	7	480	46	353	480	392	42	46	4	1	
...	25	(1,001)	(979)	(58)	(139)	(801)	(38)	(158)	(6)	(7)	
100	...	115	4	23	220	36	(1,001)	(980)	232	(139)	560	470	(8)	...	6	50	X	
...	20	1,007	84	399	986	585	55	55	30	11	
...	22	1,048	130	402	1,024	585	55	318	XX	79	
...	18	306	83	15	306	251	55	
...	21	395	82	...	395	...	55	83	
...	5	275	46	185	351	134	117	19	...	8	4	...	
...	8	416	61	222	373	176	176	5*	...	12	
...	3	171	171	155	14	2	
...	24	450	450	418	31	1	
...	28	638	638	590	45	X	...	2	
...	9	6,331	58	37	33a	171	28	81	2	49	
60	54	44	51	...	9	1	60	5*	...	9	55	4	1	
60	54	44	5*	...	9	X0	391	109	27	339	226	3*1	...	82	...	2	49	
III	1	7	7	7	
...	X	7	7	7	
...	1	79	...	13	79	66	13	
...	X	79	...	13	79	66	
x80	178	*59	97	*3	**9	txtio	4,500	763	947	436*	2,968	468	5*	6	962	*20	E	
114,581	112,078	95,937	9,154	1,799	114,079	15,308	387,595	61,098	5,594	384,355	325,321	2,547	8,280	32,006	936	3,785	d 40,918 girls in boys' schools,	
78,784	75,196	57,196	3,883	921	75,913	5,696	354,276	31,074	6,038	343,967	296,790	41,548	...	3,930	294	3,434	793 boys in girls' schools.	
90,915	81,353	68,614	21,266	6,945	90,511	53,718	1,042,463	75,677	70,897	998,871	779,623	336,643	...	6,051	193	19,952	e Uaitech schools and college* for pro-	
3,206	3,148	2,023	37	5	3,206	3,061	323,764	18,449	23,079	213,355	183,767	36,826	...	2,833	158	19,952	ession* and U-w* hml in +cnv+P*vp	
3,101	2,945	2,405	480	66	2,995	1,453	109,475	11,074	35,746	109,065	56,367	41,844	9,674	608	8	978	schools for Sntopeans and Eamaaaa b	
2,672	*544	2,117	...	35	2,637	915	35,840	1,033	376	35,732	31,458	4,604	...	429	309	2,889	excluded. The total number of scboo	
...	1,197	31	3,710	and colleges in India (indidlog	
...	101	1	1	2	Borna but excluding those Natire lStatetf
...	56	that administer their own system of cdo-
...	caion) is shown in th e Tahle ghen hetew.
...	Including 1,159 girls.
...	g Including 42K7r girls in boys' schools
...	and 792 bols in girls' schools.

BS 2,828 54,064
 4,028 57,305
 4,283 61,305
 7,127 68,305
 6,362 86,033

Western Provinces and Oudh 41 9,733 470

Provinces [] * * 41 9,733 470

oabad Assigned Districts 359,370/

GRAND TOTAL FOR INDIA* 112,218 *^43,976€

CoilBGXS Asm (Ss'ATTACHK* EUBISIAK
 Schools op KTSinCTIOVS SCHOOLS
 gsxtsal 70s SPECIAL or-
 xepctioe. rastijDenos- S?2CTSD A3TD TOTAJ-
 ntrarsPEEx- ED.) Rmmir, J*

Ko. Pnpils. HO. Pnpils. No. Pupils

Madras . 18,136 441,633 13 767 133 5,321 18,281 447,947
 Bombay . 9,064 413,746 12 1,431 200 3,359 44,161 447,947
 Bengal . 58,095 3,767 22,408 27 3,359 44,161 447,947
 ST.-W. P.iOadh 8,435 5,490 300 44 1,610 23,64* 447,947
 Pnnjab . 1,432 864 376 9 864 8,453 447,947
 Cea. Provinces. 1,432 376 9 9 376 4,444 447,947
 Assam . 195 376 12 1 376 4,444 447,947
 Coorg . 195 376 12 1 376 4,444 447,947
 H. A. Districts. 195 376 12 1 376 4,444 447,947

Toxtitt 3,274 (R) 33 35* 7*498 3^6
 British Banna. 3,274 (R) 33 35* 7*498 3^6

TOTAL FOR INDIA. 1*5,496 *735*81 r> 4480 35* *3*95 5,9x6 rj\$&SBO WT-1:1

P'-W4r

Statement showing the proportion of Pupils of each Race or Creed in all classes of Departmental, Aided and Inspected Institutions * in India at the end of the official year 1881-82.

Table with columns: PROVKTCS., Class of Institutions., Hindus., Muham-madans., Sikhs., Parsis., Native Christians., Europeans and Eurasians (in Schools for Natives of India)., Others., TOTAL. Rows include provinces like MADRAS, BOMBAY, BENGAL, N. W. P. AND OUDH, PUNJAB, CENTRAL PROVINCES, ASSAM, COORG, HAYDARABAD, and various school types like Arts Colleges, Secondary Schools, Primary Schools, Normal Schools.

General Table

Does not extend to unaided, un-inspected, indigenous and other private schools. Excludes all States that administer their own systems of education.

Abstract Return of the Total Expenditure on Education * in India ## for the official year 1881-82.

(For Details see General Tables 3b and 3c*)

1	TOTAL DIRECT EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION.						TOTAL INDIRECT EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION.							15	REMARKS.
	UNIVERSITY EDUCATION.	SCHOOL EDUCATION, GENERAL.		SCHOOL EDUCATION, SPECIAL.		TOTAL.	UNIVERSITIES.	DIRECTIONS.	INSPECTION.	SCHOLARSHIPS.	BUILDINGS.	MISCELLANEOUS.	TOTAL.		
	Arts colleges.	Secondary schools.	Primary schools.	Training schools and classes.	All other special schools.										
2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	
	*	R	R	n	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	
..Institutions. ; ; ;	13*29,027 3,116	38,30,065 82,186	64,06,972 6,80,156	3,59,464 71,399	21,791 **	*19,47,3*9 8,36,857	J-1,63,019	2,73,757	13,54,283	3,98,664	8,37*891	2,98,492	33,26,106	1,61,10,282	Percentage of total Provincial expenditure included in column 15 to total expenditure on education ;—
TOTAL	13 32,143	39,12,251	70,87,128	4,30,863	21,791	1,27,84,176	1,63,019	2,73,757	13,54,283	3,98,664	8,37,891	2,98,492	33,26,106	1,61,10,282	33*29*
2< (a) Percentages of Provincial expenditure included in columns 2—15 to total Provincial expenditure on education %	10*28	20*96	19*64	3*37	*21	849	*35f	3*87	16*58	3*66	4*82	1*42	3073	85*69	Percentage of total Local Fund expenditure included in column 15 to total expenditure on education ;—
(b) Percentages of Local Fund expenditure included in columns 2—15 to total Local Fund expenditure on education %		2*61	74*31	3*05	*01	7998			5*16	2*39	8*88	2*65	19*08	99*06	H*54
(c) Percentages of Municipal expenditure included in columns 2—15 to total Municipal expenditure on education %	2*16	23*99	57*H	*64	*52	844s	n»		1*31	2*23	6*97	*02	10*53	94*98.	
(rf) Percentages of total expenditure in columns 3—15 to total expenditure on education %	7*31	21*48	38*91	2*36	*12	701S	*gof	1*50	7*43	2*19	4*60	1*64	1826	88*44f	Percentage of total Municipal expenditure included in column 15 to total expenditure on education ;—
3. Average annual cost§ of educating each pupil In	R p.	R a. p>	R a. p.	R a. p.	if a. p.	J? a. p.	* The expenditure on uninspected indigenus and other private schools is excluded from this Table, as no accurate estimate of it can be made. The expenditure on unattached institutions for professional instruction and on schools for Europeans and Eurasians is also excluded. An abstract of these two latter charges is given in a note at the end of General Table 3c.							2*26.	
(Cost to Provincial Revenues .	169 8 0	16 15 4	0 15 4	89 14 11	11 3 2	383	f The whole of the expenditure incurred by the Indian Universities has not been returned.							Percentage of total expenditure from Public Funds (Provincial, Local and Municipal) included in column 15 to total expenditure in column 5 :—	
Departmental In-J Cost to Local Rates and Cesses	0 12 8	V3 3	2 9 11	30 12 3	0 3 7	2 9 S	J The total expenditure on education from Provincial Funds in 1881-82, including the expenditure of institutions for professional training and of schools for Europeans and Eurasians, was Rs. 70,74,365.							56*63.	
stitutions, jCost to Municipal Funds .	244 1 3	ISS	046	056	1 10 8	060	The total expenditure on education from Local Funds do. do. „26,73,365							Do. do. Municipal Funds do. do. „4,33,182	
(Cost to Provincial Revenues	43 9 1	5 1-5	0 12 1	37 12 10		1 3 1*	The total expenditure on education do. do. „1,82,15,169							Percentage of total expenditure from Public Funds included in column 15 to total expenditure on education ;—	
Aided Institu- jCost to Local Rates and Cesses	3 2*	0 3 10	0 4 11	0 3 1		0 4 5	§ The annual cost has been calculated on the direct expenditure only. The average cost of educating each pupil has been obtained by dividing the direct expenditure by the average number of pupils on the rolls monthly during the year.							50*09.	
tions. jCost to Municipal Funds .	188 12 10	16 12 1	3 7 *	101 11 10	111M	509) Excluding unaided institutions.								
(TOTAL COST							f See note at the end of General Table 3c.								
stitutions, jCost to Municipal Funds .	97 8 2	0 1 5	003	90 4 9	13 12 8	4 5 4	** Excluding Ajmir, British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.								
TOTAL COST															
(Cost to Provincial Revenues) ,	124 n 5	961	0 13 4	75 *5 4	11 3 2	2 1 10									
All Institu- jCost to Local Rates and Cesses	x *8 8	070	1 3 0	239 1	0 3 7	1 2 7									
tions. jCost to Municipal Funds .	219 6 10	088	020	0 11 10	1 9 7	029									
V Total cost *		30 6 6	3 n 5	115 7 3	1S 10 7	6 0 10									

Return of Expenditure on Departmental, Aided and Inspected

OBJECT OF EXPENDITURE.	DEPARTMENTAL INSTITUTIONS.										AIDED INSTITUTIONS.									
	1	2a	2b	2c	2d	2e	2f	2g	2h	2i	3a	3b	3c	3d	3e	3f	3g	3h	3i	
ARTS COLLEGES.	English	6,16,512	...	3,000	1,68,065	...	72,126	1,831	8,60,344	62,164	72,475	26,333	59,340	88,810	3,291	...		
	Oriental	25,379	3,980	...	32,877	127	62,323	24,547	...	5,372	16,140	...	18,439	9,072		
TOTAL		6,41,891	...	3,000	1,71,445	360	1,05,003	1,958	9,22,667	86,711	...	6,372	88,615	85,333	77,779	98,782	3,291	...		
SCHOOLS FOR GENERAL EDUCATION.	English	5,65,996	733	13,288	4,28,184	10,697	32,172	8,288	10,49,468	1,64,412	44	9,723	1,83,340	92,400	33,092	1,00,574	5,291	...		
	Yemenoular	3,037	319	3,376		
TOTAL		9,69,033	733	13,288	4,28,184	10,697	32,172	8,288	10,49,468	1,64,412	44	9,723	1,83,340	92,400	33,092	1,00,574	5,291	...		
PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL SCHOOLS ATTACHED AS DEPARTMENTS TO PRIMARY OR SECONDARY SCHOOLS.	English	1,22,003	61,853	62,632	94,515	745	5,297	4,722	3,54,788	1,00,447	35,007	27,304	1,38,500	19,911	9,926	11,095	4,441	...		
	Yemenoular	4,47,037	15,37,584	1,03,215	2,18,523	8,851	2,546	5,865	23,23,729	5,51,638	2,28,782	16,104	1,29,981	1,81,103	10,498	2,88,884	4,541	...		
TOTAL		5,69,040	16,99,437	1,65,847	2,13,038	9,646	8,043	10,613	3,58,017	1,65,080	37,011	33,408	1,78,480	20,822	10,422	12,190	8,982	...		

I.—In calculating the expenditure from Provincial Revenues or any other fund, all payments or contributions from fees or other sources are to be included. II.—The average annual cost of educating each pupil has been calculated.

Institutions* in India for the official year 1881-82,

UNAIDED INSTITUTIONS UNDER REGULAR INSPECTION.		TOTAL EXPENDITURE FROM											6
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12		
46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	
5964	6678	3390	8650	4683	677670	49934	3000	347219	266454	94349	17794	1332143	
6678	3390	8650	4683	677670	49934	3000	347219	266454	94349	17794	1332143		
1870	93036	39343	23008	28337	9591	737408	777	24891	704569	404958	1862603		
HI	IM	999	13785	III	34	3857	1756	1940	3376	
453	61761	31300	7749	3035	163349	509664	17224	58535	462397	377758	145568	538518	
650	5416	12205	770	6621	5660	309840	51875	9992	132643	124160	4790	538518	
290	280	14563	142	142	14563	474	HI	IJ	847	24467	4790	538518	
81	44	377	377	377	377	474	HI	390	513	10097	15474	538518	
573	16054	3861	3157	6880	437	1482791	69876	103935	3445	94304	3951		
1676	17953	1214	4336	8459	33637	223450	96860	91733	350967	171668	833668		
1633	6153	3554	4681	76068	6795	998675	1816376	134002	1779757	847494	5573304		
415	1619	12723	1632	15868	1683	17192	...	658	661j	63406	87867		
1619	12723	1632	36690	7999	151539	73406	24119	31727	321498	59889			
437*	45*8	*81,509	3749*	10,649	379*5	7,35*34	13,89,856	19,86,643	*47*50*	*059,062	14,04,066	707,228	
110,978	213	11,197	2,37,598	78,563	318	2,141	50,844	3^464		
IM	46471	2,874	2,450	3,568	16,036	7*399		
IM	33	713	ill	745	1,523	32	713	452	5,66*		
HI	ill	...	4,082	303	10	815	452	1,001	23,86*		
MI	fit	...	9*30	*11	2,320	V73	1,001	23,86*			
6975	...	4	7*3	a*3	x1,94*	M9,041	81,740	4,998	789	69,046	4^*6S4		
...	27,009	949	1^4	1,33,684	2396	14679		
...	2,73,757	41	4	...	2,73,757			
...	13,73,384	1^57,918	5,690	489	32,522	13,54,483		
...	1,29,338	...	4*	30790	159448			
...	11,983	1^50,886	63,843	9,679	391	3678	30,000	
...	8,221	3,41,694	2,37,450	30,171	1,26^591	8^799		
...	15,255	100^298	70,829	102	794	1,36,449	1,000,000	
...	1,05^559	2,74,845	5,0000	45,643	1^59,731	4-50A8	33^501	
7>5<0>	4^4833	1^1,05*	47,435	...	13,00^53	60,64,135	76^98	4^449	37^006	3^103M	1,16,000		

* The expenditure of unaided indigenous and other private schools, not under inspection, is excluded from this Table, as no accurate estimate of it can be made. The expenditure on unattached institutions for practical and technical instruction and on schools for Emancipated and Eurasian is also excluded. An abstract of changes is given in a note at the end of General Table 3b.

t Excluding Ajmir, British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

\$ The whole of the expenditure incurred by the Universities has not been returned.

^mMa^ma^saibotU ifceMratanta I

A/i-vK;Tj;* □y^M i* •i □^c

Detailed Return of Expenditure on Education # in earn

OBJECT OF EXPENDITURE.	DEPARTMENTAL INSTITUTIONS.										AIDED INSTITUTIONS.											
	1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10			
	R	%	R	%	R	%	R	%	R	%	R	%	R	%	R	%	R	%	R	%		
UNIVERSITY EDUCATION—	MADRAS . Arts Colleges . { English .		1,30,216
	... { Oriental
Total .		1,30,216	
BOMBAY . Arts Colleges . { English .	84,467		
	... { Oriental
Total .		84,467	
BENGAL . Arts Colleges . { English .	3,53,838		
	... { Oriental .		12,304
Total .		3,66,142	
M. W. P. AND ORISSA . Arts Colleges . { English .	88,223		
	... { Oriental .		13,975
Total .		1,02,198	
PUNJAB . Arts Colleges . { English .	45,803		
	... { Oriental
Total .		45,803	
CENTRAL PROVINCES . Arts Colleges . { English .	9,435		
	... { Oriental
Total .		9,435	
EXPENDITURE ON UNIVERSITY EDUCATION .		6,40,897	
Total .		6,40,897	
DEPARTMENTAL INSTITUTIONS.	Provincial Revenues	
	Local Rates or Cesses
Municipal Funds	
Fees	
Subscriptions	
Endowments	
Other Sources	
TOTAL	
AIDED INSTITUTIONS.	Provincial Revenues	
	Local Rates or Cesses
Municipal Funds	
Fees	
Subscriptions	
Endowments	
Other Sources	
TOTAL	

I.—The sub-headings show expenditures from Provincial Revenues or any other fund, all payments or contributions from fees or other sources credited to the account of the institution. II.—The percentages in column 2 are based on the total expenditure on each object shown in column 1. III.—The average annual cost of educating each pupil has been calculated on the basis of the total expenditure on each object shown in column 1 divided by the total number of pupils shown in column 10.

Province of India for the official year 1881-82 - continued.

General Table No. 3c.

Table with columns: UNPAID INSTITUTIONS UNDER REGULAR INSPECTION, TOTAL EXPENDITURE, AVERAGE ANNUAL COST OF EDUCATING EACH PUPIL IN. Sub-headers include: DBPJTUMSEITIAI IS'STTICTIOK'S, AidsD lirsmpreTioxs, U If AID ED LrsTmrioBTa. Rows include various institutional types and their financial data.

1. The amount shown in column 4c is the amount actually paid for the year ending on the 31st March 1882. 2. The amount shown in column 4d is the amount actually paid for the year ending on the 31st March 1881. 3. The amount shown in column 4e is the amount actually paid for the year ending on the 31st March 1880.

Vertical text on the right margin, possibly a page number or reference code.

OBJECT OF EXPENDITURE.

DEPARTMENTAL INSTITUTIONS.	AIDED INSTITUTIONS.															
	1	2a	2b	2c	2d	2e	2f	2g	2h	2i						
PRIMARY EDUCATION—	Provincial Revenues.	Local Rates or Cesses.	Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Subscriptions.	Endowments.	Other Sources.	TOTAL.	Provincial Revenues.	Local Rates or Cesses.	Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Subscriptions.	Endowments.	Other Sources.	TOTAL.
MAHARASHTRA	28,889	53,963	14,365	49,391	1,053	134	1,49,005	35,152	34,780	19,463	1,97,310	17,532	6,757	59,681	2,844	2,844
For Boys	7,195	1,00,534	8,283	11,305	...	579	1,27,986	71,487	2,18,579	20,007	1,97,476	10,051	2,476	78,024	5,544	5,544
For Girls	1,675	370	2,045	7,044	504	2,313	3,492	846	19,296	344
Total	6,421	3,417	3,726	225	20	438	7	13,284	25,155	125	1,652	5,819	22,669	2,182	26,627	944
BOMBAY	44,280	1,26,914	26,494	52,492	20,492	720	2,83,320	94,838	2,53,284	41,695	3,23,918	53,744	12,262	1,94,638	1,94,638	54,444
For Boys
For Girls
Total	1,27,267	5,25,458	28,287	1,44,018	4,239	113	2,119	9,62,490	9,266	2,529	100	5,593	5,260	6,579
W. P. AND OGDH.	3,135
For Boys
For Girls
Total	1,24,725	5,04,193	27,432	37,986	3,497	3,660	6,97,310	61,078	413	7,268	16,931
PUNJAB.	31,975	6,755	26,420	31,007	1,271	2,085	1,11,524	24,358	11	1,979	12,597	12,597	3,727	382	16,978	64
For Boys	773	2,32,801	24,058	15,202	...	290	2,32,764	960	...	600	2,026	360	1,123	54
For Girls	3,182	8,246	6,991	2	...	311	18,044	15,213	1,260	3,528	8,615	665	22,012	94
Total	38,099	2,47,900	67,469	46,212	3,272	4,427	4,03,200	42,221	1,272	5,208	16,019	16,019	12,352	1,497	47,997	128
CENTRAL PROVINCES.	10,235	...	3,026	3,651	745	...	27,688	5,517	...	896	1,795	1,795	4,052	...	771	771
For Boys	41,894	1,11,566	14,651	14,361	4,337	...	1,27,332	18,725	...	1,176	2,002	2,002	16,725	...	1,195	304
For Girls	...	11,965	1,220	13,652	1,467	...	240	1,388	...	2,447	2,447
Total	52,129	1,23,531	16,877	16,083	5,289	324	2,18,350	44,000	...	2,272	3,797	3,797	13,590	...	3,913	524
ASSAM.	345	1,119	...	15	4,719	4,719
For Boys	1,894	975	2,869
For Girls	...	6,150	...	68	6,218	192	...	21	110	110
Total	345	6,150
WEST BENGAL.
For Boys
For Girls
Total
ANDHRA PRADESH.
For Boys
For Girls
Total
RAJASTHAN.
For Boys
For Girls
Total
GUJARAT.
For Boys
For Girls
Total
HYDERABAD.
For Boys
For Girls
Total
TELANGANA.
For Boys
For Girls
Total
CHHATTISGARH.
For Boys
For Girls
Total
KERALA.
For Boys
For Girls
Total
GOA.
For Boys
For Girls
Total
MIZORAM.
For Boys
For Girls
Total
TRIPURA.
For Boys
For Girls
Total
WEST BENGAL (continued).
For Boys
For Girls
Total
WEST BENGAL (continued).
For Boys
For Girls
Total
WEST BENGAL (continued).
For Boys
For Girls
Total

1.—In tabulating the expenditure from Provincial Revenues or any other fund, all payments or contributions from fees or other sources credited to the account of the institution are included. 2.—The percentages in column 2 show the proportion which the expenditure on each object bears to the total expenditure. 3.—The average annual cost of educating each pupil has been calculated on the basis of the total expenditure divided by the total number of pupils.

Detailed Return of Expenditure on Education in each

OBJECT OF EXPENDITURE	DEPARTMENTAL INSTITUTIONS.							AIDED INSTITUTIONS.						
	Provincial Revenues	Municipal Funds	Subscriptions	Endowments	Other Sources	Total	Provincial Revenues	Municipal Funds	Subscriptions	Endowments	Other Sources	Total		
	2a	2b	2c	2d	2e	2f	3a	3b	3c	3d	3e	3f	3g	
PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION Training Schools for Masters (Training Schools for Mistresses) (Engineering Schools)	26,146	23,447	304	49,897	4,535	68	...	1,106	...	11,829	
TOTAL	3,447	3,447	304	53,938	7,892	68	...	3,877	3,987	2,655	
Training Schools for Masters	34,316	16,731	51,499	
Training Schools for Mistresses	15,239	3,734	600	600	19,193	
Engineering Schools	1,500	1,500	
Industrial Schools	...	303	303	
Other Schools	9,368	...	2,220	1,275	141	860	13,862	
TOTAL	62,004	19,388	2,820	1,275	141	860	85,939	
Training Schools for Masters (Training Schools for Mistresses) (Engineering Schools)	62,004	300	...	581	62,938	4,758	273	15,593	12,133	
TOTAL	62,004	300	...	581	62,938	8,221	346	15,593	12,133	
Training Schools for Masters (Training Schools for Mistresses) (Engineering Schools)	30,280	6,272	135	36,687	1,968	120	...	724	...	3,771	
TOTAL	30,280	6,272	135	36,687	1,968	120	...	724	...	3,771	
Training Schools for Masters (Training Schools for Mistresses) (Engineering Schools)	19,233	38,331	47,955	3,000	...	1,850	74	...	8,093	
TOTAL	19,233	38,331	47,955	16,280	...	1,850	74	...	10,160	
Training Schools for Masters (Training Schools for Mistresses) (Engineering Schools)	19,226	...	14	...	114	...	19,356	
Industrial Schools	4,082	...	10	815	...	452	5,359	
TOTAL	23,447	...	24	815	114	454	24,715	
Training Schools for Masters (Training Schools for Mistresses) (Engineering Schools)	11,044	3,363	MI	96	...	67	14,570	3,205	1,165	
TOTAL	11,044	3,363	...	96	...	67	14,570	3,205	1,165	
Training Schools for Masters (Training Schools for Mistresses) (Engineering Schools)	1,890	1,890	
TOTAL	1,890	1,890	
School for Hsgteja Schools for Mistakes	8,571	8,571	
TOTAL	8,571	8,571	
TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION	...	3,148	3,148	

I.—In calculating the expenditure from Provincial Revenues or any other fund, all payments contributions from Pees & other i
 II.—The percentages in column 6 show the proportion which the expenditure bears to the total
 III.—The average annual cost of educating

Detailed Return of Expenditure on Education

OBJECT OF EXPENDITURE.	DEPARTMENTAL INSTITUTIONS.							AIDED INSTITUTIONS.									
	1	2a	2b	2c	2d	2e	2f	2g	2h	3a	3b	3c	3d	3e	3f	3g	3h
UNIVERSITIES, + DIRECTION, INSPECTION AND OTHER MISCELLANEOUS CHARGES																	
MADRAS
BOMBAY
BENGAL
N. W. P. AND ODDH.
PUNJAB
CENTRAL PROVINCES.
ASSAM
COORGE
TRIPURA
WEST BENGAL
GRAND TOTAL FOR INDIA

1. In tabulating the expenditure from Provincial Revenues or any other fund, all payments or contributions from fees or other sources are included in the Provincial Revenues column in the proportion which the expenditure on each object bears to the total expenditure on that object.

Uttar Pradesh, of India * for the official year 1881-82 —concluded.

General Table No. 3c.

UNAIDED INSTITUTIONS UNDER REGULAR INSPECTION.				TOTAL EXPENDITURE.			
4a	4b	4c	4d	5a	5b	5c	5d
6,069			1,108	4,808	11,983	8,620	6,428
18,131			15,255	78,121	41,108	1,374	82,81
			20,306	25,556	5,255	61,117	1,788
			3,198	1,80,070	1,40,796	6,40,199	1,866
			68,834	7,478	1,810	17,803	3,68,333
			3,66,523	4,83,206	3,104	76,58*	3,68,333
			73,478	11,873	27,845	4,808	76,58*
			\$35,078	7,190	4,808	4,808	4,808
			8,413	1,26,546	9,68,10E	18,45	9,68,10E
			35,540	3,09,662	6,253	3,554	3,554
			7,972	4,526	2,053	3,447	3,447
			4,526	28,304	37,681	66,371	66,371
			336	13,756	42,180	3,9,77	3,9,77
			>3,095	77,859	42,180	3,9,77	3,9,77
			43,453	70,668	56,518	1,7,186	1,7,186
			6,816	4,743	38,269	3,619	3,619
			32,627	2,451	61,987	7,754	7,754
			2,451	61,987	4,445	3,9	3,9
			1,59,964	5,57,328	3,619	5,583	5,583
			26,506	77,452	108	77-5	77-5
			7,604	13,438	5,385	7,718	7,718
			48,242	8,495	58,699	19,104	19,104
			759	31,486	3,445	2,83	2,83
			1,73,701	4M74	*,43	VM*S	22 84! § See note X supra.
			48,716	65	48,781	15,768	15,768
			53,033	77	13,653	4,39	4,39
			55,924	1,43*	2,016	1,64	1,64
			51,654	55,087	644	2,03	2,03
			64^X4	9,700	2,737	76,851	76,851
			821	480	x^M	5,72	5,72
			301	494	301	4,09	4,09
			1,616	93	*,49	11^13	11^13
			18,421	25,804	1,480	6,80	6,80
			1,480	6,380	6,380	9,55	9,55
			6,940	32,215	10,636	461	461
			74,175	33^90	*,74,78	3046:	3046:
			1,08,359	2,74,848	9^43,55*	33^6,06	33^6,06
			12,55<5	15,714	1,24,093	3,5^,0**	7,75,042
			4,3>5	4,152	24,399	5,53^,0**	9,28^338
			20,968	54,337	3,70^4*	32,63,537	6,^22,784
			5,888	5,8	14,999	8,59,512	7,55,143
			712	1,187	h837	501,637	767,117
			3,039	1,MSW	713	3,50,885	3,35,049
					7,377	1,37,37	91,346
						5,366	73,93
						2,41	3,^,548
						2,34,52	2,41
						x,03,224	13,450
						32,854,161,312,291	3,6,80
						88^44	□□TOTAL.

Excludin^ the total axmmBtgra iof Aya^r ^xiMi aiDOiuQtedtoE63/98<

Statement showing the distribution of Expenditure from Public Funds* upon each.

OBJECT OF EXPENDITURE	CLASS OF FUNDS	MADRAS.		BOMBAY.		BENGAL.	
		Expenditure.	Percentage.	Expenditure.	Percentage.	Expenditure.	Percentage.
		<i>R</i>				<i>R</i>	
	Provincial.....	1,50,645	19.44	90,567	9.76	2,89,582	12.80
	Local.....						
COLLEGIATE EDUCATION	Municipal			3,000	3.73		
	TOTAL OF PUBLIC FUNDS	1,50,645	10.78	93,567	5.28	2,89,582	12.80
	Provincial	1,78,341	23.01	1,83,367	19.78	5,35,624	23.66
	Local	11,172	2.05	614	0.08	1,412	1.29
SECONDARY EDUCATION	Municipal	2,292	2.97	34,254	42.59	17,783	72.59
	TOTAL OF PUBLIC FUNDS	1,91,805	13.73	2,18,235	12.32	5,54,819	23.54
	Provincial	1,39,008	17.95	2,74,146	29.53	5,26,553	23.30
	Local	4,10,198	75.23	5,81,539	76.21	8,121	
PRIMARY EDUCATION	Municipal ...	68,099	88.25	39,842	49.54	6,714	27.41
	TOTAL OF PUBLIC FUNDS	6,17,445	44.18	8,95,527	50.54	5,41,388	
	Provincial	38,079	4.91	60,445	6.51	70,216	3.16
	Local	23,515	4.31	19,788	2.59	350	3.54
PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION	Municipal.....	304	0.39	2,820	3.51		
	TOTAL OF PUBLIC FUNDS	61,898	4.43	83,053	4.69	70,566	3.11
	Provincial	2,68,859	34.69	3,19,813	34.45	8,41,562	
	Local	1,00,355	18.41	1,61,158	21.12		
UNIVERSITIES, SCHOLARSHIPS, BUILINGS AND INSPECTION, MISCELLANEOUS OBJECTS.	Municipal	6,471	8.39	507	0.63		
	TOTAL OF PUBLIC FUNDS	3,75,685	26.88	4,81,478	27.17	8,41,562	26.62
	Provincial	7,75,042		9,28,338		22,63,537	
	Local	5,45,240		7,63,099		9,883	
	Municipal	77,166		80,423		24,497	
	TOTAL OF PUBLIC FUNDS	13,97,448		17,71,860		22,97,917	

* As given in General Tables 30, 31, 32 from which the expenditure on unattached projects of the expenditure from each class of funds on the following items:
 § Excluding all unattached projects

Statement showing the distribution of Expenditure from Public Funds* upon each.

OBJECT OF EXPENDITURE	CLASS OF FUNDS	MADRAS.		BOMBAY.		BENGAL.	
		Expenditure.	Percentage.	Expenditure.	Percentage.	Expenditure.	Percentage.
		<i>R</i>				<i>R</i>	
	Provincial.....	1,50,645	19.44	90,567	976	2,89,582	12*80
	Local.....						
COLLEGIATE EDUCATION	Municipal			3,000	3*73		
	TOTAL OF PUBLIC FUNDS	1,50*645	10*78	93,5^7	5*28	2,89,582	12-&J
	Provincial	1,78,341	23*01	1,83,367	1978	5,35,624	23*66 j
	Local ■ * » • p »«	11,172	205	614	*08	1,412	14*29 j
SECONDARY EDUCATION	Municipal	2,292	2*97	34*254	42*59	17,783	72*59!
	TOTAL OF PUBLIC FUNDS	1,91,805	13*73	2,18,235	12*32	5,54,819	&54>8*9
	Provincial	1,39,713	17*95	2,74,146	29*53	5*26,553	23^3^J
	Local	4,10,198	75*23	5,81,539	76*21	8,121	
PRIMARY EDUCATION	Municipal	68,099	88*25	39,842	49^54	6,714	27*4T
	TOTAL OF PUBLIC FUNDS	6,17,445	44*18	8,95,527	50*54	5,41,388	
	Provincial	38,079	4*91	60,445	6*51	70,216	3*16
	Local	23,515	4*3i	19,788	2*59	350	3^54
Professional and Technical Education	Municipal.....	304	*39	2,820	3^5i		
	TOTAL OF PUBLIC FUNDS	61,898	4*43	83,053	4*69	70,556	3*^1
	Provincial	2,68,859	34*69	3,19,813	34*45	8,41,562	
	Local	1*00,355	18*41	1,61,158	21*12		
UNIVERSITIES, SCHOLARSHIPS, CELLANEUS OBJECTS, DIRECTION, BUILDINGS AND INSPECTION, MIS-	Municipal	6,471	8*39	507	*63		
	TOTAL OF PUBLIC FUNDS	3,75,685	26*88	4,81,478	27-17	8,41,562	26*6? Th1
	Provincial	7,75,042		9,28,338		22,63,537	
	Local	5*45,240		7,63,099		9,883	T H
	Municipal	77,166		80,423		24,497	
	TOTAL OF PUBLIC FUNDS	13,97,448		17,71,860		22,97,917	

* As given in General Tables 30, 3^, 3c_3 from which the expenditure on unattached projects of the expenditure from each class of funds on the § Excluding all un;

class of Institutions in the several Provinces of India for the official year 1881-82.

N.-W. PROVINCES AND OUDH.		PUNJAB.		CENTRAL PROVINCES.		ASSAM.		COORG.		HAIDARABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS.		INDIA †	
Expenditure.	Percent- age. †	Expenditure.	Percent- age. †	Expenditure.	Percent- age. †	Expenditure.	Percent- age. †	Expenditure.	Percent- age. †	Expenditure.	Percent- age. †	Expenditure.	Percent- age. †
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
₹		₹		₹		₹		₹		₹		₹	
1,20,570	14'03	66,803	13'31	9,435	2'69	7,27,602	12'00
...
...	...	6,372	4'41	9,372	2'28
1,20,570	8'00	73,175	6'69	9,435	1'82	7,36,974	8'08
2,52,134	29'33	1,61,696	32'23	63,180	18'01	47,778	34'78	7,518	56'83	53,153	22'66	14,82,791	24'45
17,845	2'99	38,820	8'64	13	0'01	69,876	2'64
9,311	18'68	30,096	20'84	9,883	29'61	285	79'17	31	2'25	1,03,935	25'26
2,79,290	18'54	2,30,612	21'06	73,063	14'15	48,063	24'75	7,518	37'05	53,197	16'45	16,56,602	18'17
1,83,829	21'39	77,271	15'40	76,130	21'70	11,930	8'68	2,206	16'67	98,673	42'07	13,89,856	22'92
5,02,606	84'11	2,49,173	55'46	1,23,529	93'40	51,134	90'55	6,150	87'07	54,192	61'95	19,86,642	75'02
36,693	73'64	73,577	50'94	21,169	63'42	75	20'83	1,333	96'80	2,47,502	60'16
7,23,128	47'99	4,00,021	36'52	2,20,828	42'75	63,139	32'51	8,356	41'18	1,54,198	47'67	36,24,000	39'72
32,248	3'75	35,903	7'16	28,440	8'10	13,249	9'65	1,890	14'29	8,571	3'65	2,89,041	4'77
6,392	1'07	28,332	6'30	3,363	5'96	81,740	3'08
...	...	1,850	1'28	24	0'07	4,998	1'21
38,640	2'56	66,085	6'03	28,464	5'51	16,612	8'55	1,890	9'31	8,571	2'65	3,75,779	4'11
2,70,731	31'50	1,59,964	31'90	1,73,701	49'50	64,414	46'89	1,616	12'21	74,185	31'62	21,74,845	35'86
70,698	11'83	1,32,937	29'60	8,727	6'60	1,975	3'49	913	12'93	33,277	38'04	5,10,040	19'26
3,825	7'68	32,527	22'53	2,299	6'90	13	0'95	45,642	11'09
3,45,254	22'91	3,25,428	29'70	1,84,727	35'77	66,389	34'19	2,529	12'46	1,07,475	33'23	27,30,527	29'92
8,59,512	...	5,01,637	...	3,50,886	...	1,37,371	...	13,230	...	2,34,582	...	60,64,135	...
5,97,541	...	4,49,262	...	1,32,256	...	56,472	...	7,063	...	87,482	...	26,48,298	...
49,829	...	1,44,422	...	33,375	...	360	1,377	...	4,11,449	...
15,06,882	...	10,95,321	...	5,16,517	...	1,94,203	...	20,293	...	3,23,441	...	91,22,882	...

and technical institutions and on schools and colleges for Europeans and Eurasians is excluded.

Birma, and all Native States.

† to the total expenditure upon education from the class of funds in question.

note † in General Table No. 3c, page xxxi.)

Detailed Return of the total Expenditure on Education* from Public and Private Funds in the official Year 1881-82.

Table with columns for Public Funds (Provincial, Local Rates, Municipal, Total of Public) and Private Funds (Fees, Subscriptions, Endowments, Other Sources, Total of Private). Rows list various educational institutions and their expenditures.

*Med and Inspected institutions, of all attached and unattached institutions for professional and technical instruction and of schools and edjir... The amount invested at the end of 1881-82 stood at R=17500, ft 18,300 being for: he

in tir* calendar/year 1881 was as follows:- Provincial Grant * 27,000 + 23,502 + 9,728 = 60,230

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CENTRAL PROVINCES

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General Table No. 4.

Return showing the results of University and Departmental Examinations in India* during the official year 1881-82.

NO. of Examinations	UNIVERSITY EXAMINATIONS				DEPARTMENTAL EXAMINATIONS				SCHOOLS				TOTAL						
	Departmental Institutions	Aided Institutions	Other Institutions	TOTAL	Departmental Institutions	Aided Institutions	Other Institutions	Private Students	Departmental Institutions	Aided Institutions	Other Institutions	Private Students	TOTAL	Departmental Institutions	Aided Institutions	Other Institutions	Private Students	TOTAL	
X.	3	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	13	13	*4	xs	x6	17	18	19	20
Arts Colleges*																			
Master of Arts * * *	9	5	2	16	MI	* * *	• IS	III	93	*11	SIS	IM	ft*	40	» ••	III	• • 1	» « •	43*oi
Bachelor of Arts * t	16	8	3	27	381	219	43	54	<97	165	83	8	10	266	43°3°	37°89	18*60	18*51	31*16
First Examination for the Degree of B» A.	2	2	t«	4	66	<22	MI		88	24	10		IM	34	36*36	45°45	MI	IM	38-63
First Arts » » • ♦	27	16	8	5*	671	598	182	119	J.S7°	353	255	73	41	722	52*60	42*64	40*10	34°45	45°98
Previous Examination > »	3	2	1	6	182	81	15	III	278	4i	26		*•1	7i	22*52	32*09	26*66	MI	25°54
Bachelor of Science * >	1	X	»»(3	6	I	III	II*	7	t	I	tM	III	3	16*66	100*	MI	I • «	28-55
First Examination for the Degree of B, Sc,	1	tit	□ M	z	2	**»	• I*	• ««	2	2	MI	II*	• • 1	2	100*	*4*	III	IM	100*
TOTAL	Mf	14 I	. M	in	1,308	921	240	173	2.735	586	375	85	5*	M37	44*80	4071	35°4r	29-47	41*57
Schools, f																			
Matriculation . ?	138	181	140	459	2,318	2,424	2,120	661	7.423	1,096	837	743	97	3,773	49°4i	34°53	35°os	1467	37*35
(Girls .	I	3	ttt	4	3	3	• • •	t>1	6	2	3	MI	MI	5	66-66	100*	• • •	MI	83-33
Middle School Ex- (Boys ' amination. C Girls	975	1,535	3*510	6,453	8,433	2,710	17,596	3>593	41384	877	8,854	55°68	52*10	32*36	50*31				
Upper Primary (Boys . School Examf- 5 nation. v, Girls »	8,013	3,05a	11,065	43* >56	17,460	156	80,77*	21,249	9,770	94	*31,113	49°23	5595	60*25	51°19				
Lower Primary (Boys , School Examf- 3 nation. t Girls .	144	198	343	4S4	x,135	3	1.59*	246	688	2	936	54*18	60*6x	66*66	58*79				
TOTAL	MI	M*	••	148,062	98,302	3, <74	350,038	77,543	52)953	M7°	132,666	53*37	54*88	3i'84	53-05				
GRAND TOTAL	••	M*	••	149>370	991463	3,847	252,773	78,129	54*4*3	1,221	133,803	52*30	54*70	3i'73	52-93				

Excluding Ajmitfj tfrmsn Burma ana an Native states m mwa tnat aaimster their own system or education.
 f The school-examinations recorded in this Table include only those that were held in all Provinces alike. Hence many Provincial examinations are omitted, Some of these are given in Subsidiary Table 3 on page xliii.
 of \$64 pupils who passed from the Primary Departments of Middle Schools in Bengal*
 f Ditto 430 ditto ditto tower classes of Middle and Upper Primary Schools in Bengal*

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SUBSIDIARY TABLES—INDIGENOUS SCHOOLS.

Statement showing the number of unaided Indigenous Schools existing in India at the end of the official year 1881-82.*

PROVINCES.	ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.		OTHER INDIGENOUS SCHOOLS.		TOTAL.		REMARKS.
	Number of schools.	Number of scholars.	Number of schools.	Number of scholars.	Number of schools.	Number of scholars.	
MADRAS .	2,828	54,064			2,828	54,064	<i>vi</i>
BOMBAY .	3,934	78,205	58	550	4,012	78,735	
BENGAL .	3,265	49,238	1,018	8,067	4,283	57,305	
N.-W. P. AND OUDH	6,712	61,634	415	6,671	7,127	68,305	
PUNJAB .					6,362 +	86,023 f	f These statistics are furnish* ed by the Department, but are admitted to be incom- plete.
CENTRAL PROVINCES .	[83]	[3,148]			[83]	[3,148] t	t The numbers in square brackets relate to unaided- indigenous schools <i>under i</i> <i>inspection</i> and are there- fore included in the Tables of statistics for Priixiary schools.
ASSAM	497	9,733			497	9,733	
COORG	4	470			4*	470	* " 4
HAI DARABAD ASSIGNED DIS- TRICTS.....	[207]	[2,672]			[207]	[2,672] i	
TOTAL FOR INDIA* .	53,344	1,491	15,288	25,150	354,655		

* Excluding Ajmir, British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education*

SUBSIDIARY TABLES—PRIMARY EDUCATION.

Table 1.—Comparative Statement showing the number of Primary Schools existing in India* at the end of the official years 1870-71 and 1881-82.

PROVINCES.	Class of Schools.	1870-71.			1881-82.			REMARKS.
		Number of schools.	Number of pupils.	Average number of pupils in each school.	Number of schools.	Number of pupils.	Average number of pupils in each school.	
VDRAS.	Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools	17	74i	44	1,263	40,975	37	% The figures as returned by the Provincial Committee. The Report on Public Instruction for 1870-71 returns a large number of these schools as unaided institutions. a The numbers enclosed in square brackets are included under Secondary Schools. X An estimate only.
	Aided Schools.....	12,783	67,496	24	7,414	204,140	27	
	Unaided Schools under inspection				5,809	109,528	19	
	Primary Classes in High and Middle Schools and in Colleges		[21,465]					
	TOTAL	2,800	<58,237	24	14,486	360,643	24	
M.BAY	Government and Local Fund Schools.	2,307	129,653	56	3,800	243,959	64	
	Aided Schools	44	2,945	66	196	13,902	70	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	387	27,030	69	1,331	74,827	56	
	TOTAL	2,738	159,628	58	5,338	332,688	62	
SNGAL	Government Schools.	47	1,627	34	28	916	33	
	Aided Schools.....	2,439	66,417	27	47,374	835,435	17	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	26	499	19	4,375	62,038	14	
	Primary Classes in High and Middle Schools		[57,945]*	[27]	41,891		[40]	
	TOTAL	2,512	68,543	27	51,778	898,389	17	b As estimated in 1881. Later estimates would add about 6,500 to the number.
-W. P. AND OUDH 4	Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools	4,378	148,126	34	5,561	197,060	35	§ Exclusive of 27 schools in Ajmir with 1,111 pupils. At the end of 1881-82, the schools in Ajmir were 59 in number and were at-
	Aided Schools	143	5,126	35	243	15,019	61	
	Unaided Schools under inspection				41	1,159	28	
	TOTAL	4,421	153,252	34	5,845	213,238	36	
INJAB	Government (Local Fund and Municipal Schools	1,254	50,547	40	1,549	88,251	57	B. Inclusive of the pupils in the Secondary Departments of Tahsili and Halkabandi Schools. ** The apparent decrease in this class of institutions since 1870-71 is due to differences in the classification of schools in the two years under comparison.
	Aided Schools	501	18,950	37	78	14,616	53	
	Unaided Schools under inspection							
	TOTAL	1,755	69,497	39	1,827	102,867	56	
CENTRAL PROVINCES.	Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools	795	41,404	52	894	55,745	62	V.Y
	Aided Schools	423	20,792	51	368	18,786	51	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	668	14,203	21	86	3,206	57	
	TOTAL	1,886	76,399	40	1,348	77,737	57	
SSAM	Government Schools				7	187	26	y'h
	Aided Schools				1,256	35,643	28	
	Unaided Schools under inspection					2,352	26	
	TOTAL				1,351	38,182	28	
OORG	Government Schools	32	1,433	46	57	2,978	52	
	Aided Schools		108	36	3	9*	30	
	Unaided Schools under inspection							
	TOTAL	35	1,541	44	60	3,069	51	
L.A. DISTRICTS	Government and Local Fund Schools	97	10,223	34	467	27,844	59	• <> □. □*
	Aided Schools				209	432	20	
	Unaided Schools under inspection				207	2,400	12	
	TOTAL	297	10,223	34	883	34,723	39	
	TOTAL FOR INDIA*		<507,320	&	82,916	2,061,100	24	

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Schools
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SUBSIDIARY TABLES—PRIMARY EDUCATION.

Table 2.—Classification of Pupils in Primary Schools by Race or Creed for the official year 1881-82.

Provinces.	of Institutions.	Hindus.	Muham- madans,	Sikhs.	Parsis.	Christians b	Others.	TOTAL.	Remarks.
HATTRAJI	Government, Local Fund and Schools, Aided Schools							44,853	* 6,582 of these are girls. U
	Unaided Schools under inspection							2,133	
	Total	99,446	4,805			3,373	3,252	192,480	
	Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed. 1 Girl	3*07 *08	3*55 *04			6*80 1*84	22*36 2*95	3*23 *13	
	Government and Local Fund Schools	199,449	38,211		1,648	957	3,398	233,663	
	Aided Schools	9,807	1,477		350	37	85	11,296	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	61,074	1,393		1,543	505	149	65,564	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	3,044	35		153	647	93	4,338	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	89,283	9,737		376	59	531	102,946	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	3,898	314		161	3		6,582	
BOHBAY	Government Schools	65,416						65,416	* 4,296 of these are girls. U
	Aided Schools	15,747						15,747	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	3,84	3*03		6*25 5*34	1*74 1*13	*64 *04	2*61 *17	
	Government Schools	44,554	3,721			3,437	18,840	88,097	
	Aided Schools	14,580	1,579			1,183	220	17,453	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	64,454	3,706			3,477	18,840	88,097	
	Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed. 1 Girl	3*9 *06	3*03 *04			5*07 1*96	1*73 *01	3*59 *05	
	Government, Local Fund and Aided Schools	163,037	30,137			93	3,07	193,373	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	3,560	1,126			1		3,687	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	6,907	1,897			1,392	32	10,223	
BESTRAL	Government, Local Fund and Aided Schools	1,991	1,618				6	4,797	* 20,744 of these are girls. U
	Unaided Schools under inspection	803	99					902	
	Total	2,794	1,717					4,502	
	Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed. 1 Girl	1*06 *09	1*06 *09			4*78 7*17	*34 *07	*89 *04	
	Government, Local Fund and Aided Schools	44,503	3,751	6,965		37	139	84,384	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	1,360	3,334	172		357	713	5,656	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	4,98	3,683	397		353	121	9,439	
	Total	49,397	38,554	7,588		34	88	93,660	
	Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed. 1 Girl	1*37 *09	*64 *08	ns *30		1*7 3*02		*91 *10	
	Government, Local Fund and Aided Schools	47,398	4,014			12	1,645	53,069	
Unaided Schools under inspection	15,518	33			7	40	15,598		
TOXAN	Government, Local Fund and Aided Schools	319	46			383	1,148	1,856	* These include diildjaEdL. Ac., who are retameST in the census as fits- das.
	Unaided Schools under inspection	889	348			149		1,386	
	Total	1,208	394			532		3,242	
	Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed. 1 Girl	1*77 *07	3*90 *10			5*63 3*26	*35	1*50 *06	
	Government Schools	100					79	179	
	Aided Schools	36,213	4,46			653	2,700	44,032	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	534	3			366	340	1,133	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	1,580	533			3	171	2,287	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	82				9	16	97	
	TOXAN	Government, Local Fund and Aided Schools	779	8425			656 *75	*950 366	
Unaided Schools under inspection		576							
Total		1,355	8,425			656	*950	*36,973	
Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed. 1 Girl		1*46 *02	*81			16*04 9*15	1*19 *14	1*47 *05	
Government Schools		3,071	8			31		3,079	
Aided Schools		8	1			56		65	
Unaided Schools under inspection		3,063				24		3,087	
Total		6,134	9			81		6,143	
Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed. 1 Girl		3*17	no			4*38 1*74		3*03 *03	
Government and Local Fund Schools		34,362	3,945		9	26		38,332	
Aided Schools	266	34			3		323		
Unaided Schools under inspection	3,831	363			13		4,108		
Unaided Schools under inspection	64	38			13		104		
Unaided Schools under inspection	5,668	293					3,661		
TOXAN	Government, Local Fund and Aided Schools	38,34	4,84			39		43,18	* Including 730 attending <u>schools, which be sepaated returns. of the total naq^ atf- lation was s cm^f,
	Unaided Schools under inspection	2,337	4,162			3,48	50,000	3,503	
	Total	40,677	8,996			42		49,681	
	Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed. 1 Girl	2*04 *07	1*57 *05	1*05 *27	9*05 5*26	5*50 3*02	1*05 *04	1*92 *08	
	Government, Local Fund and Aided Schools	34,362	3,945		9	26		38,332	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	266	34			3		323	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	3,831	363			13		4,108	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	64	38			13		104	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	5,668	293					3,661	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	34	4,84			39		43,18	

SUBSIDIARY TABLES—PRIMARY EDUCATION.

Table 3.—Statement showing the results of the Primary School Examinations in 1881-82

PROVINCES.	NATURE OF EXAMINATION.		Number of institutions presenting examinees.	Number of examinees.	Number passed.	Percentage of those passed to those presented.
BOMBAY	Special Upper Primary	{Boys Girls	99 42	1,128 224	457 77	40*5t 34*37
	Upper Primary	{Boys Girls	1,112 120	10,140 77	6,674 498	65*81 68*31
	Lower do.	{Boys Girls	3,566 240	22,166 2,713	15,334 1,273	69-17 46*31
	Result Standard II	{Boys Girls		39*442	27,647	70*09
	Ditto I	{Boys Girls		2,935	1,837	62*58
		{Boys Girls		59*797	42,360	70*83
		{Boys Girls		5,049	3*209	63*55
	TOTAL			143,323	99,366	69-33
	Public Service Certificate Examination in Vernacular Standard VI . Boys	{Boys Girls	252 532	3,771 2,698	1*253 1,028	33*23 38 10
	Sixth Vernacular Standard Examination held in Schools	{Boys Girls	24 1,246	7*289 146	3,198 67	73*53 45*89
"Fifth ditto	{Boys Girls	57 132	18,127 503	7,946 230	43*3 45*72	
Fourth (Upper Primary)** ditto	{Boys Girls	2,749 195	30,868 1,005	14,061 658	45*56 65*57	
Third ditto	{Boys Girls	4*341 265	43,650 1,933	21,892 890	50*25 46*04	
Second (Lower Primary)* ditto	{Boys Girls	4,585 299	54,604 2,893	36,669 1,696	67*15 58*62	
First ditto	{Boys Girls					
TOTAL			167,518	89*453	51*40	
BENGAL	Upper Primary .	{Boys Girls	1,267 10	3,142 15	*2,531 *3	80*55 86*66
	Lower Primary .	{Boys Girls	8,196 87	29,182 186	+16,417 144	56*25 71*4
	Utterpara Hitakari Sabha Examination	{Boys Girls	33 33	85 85	50 50	58*82
	TOTAL			32,610	19,155	5873
N.A.V. P. AND OUDH	Upper Primary .	{Boys Girls	3^65 61	14,081 235	6,627 129	47-06 54*89
	Lower Primary .	{Boys Girls	4,887 142	30,573 749	14,834 39*	48*51 52*20
	TOTAL			145,638	21,981	48*16
PUNJAB	Upper Primary.....	{Boys Girls	1,384 5	6,323 8	4,203 7*582	66*49 87-50
	Lower Primary.....	{Boys Girls	1,518 241	10,197 163	44 44	74*35 26199
	TOTAL			16,689	XX,836	Joy*
CENTRAL PROVINCES.	Sixth Vernacular Standard Examination held in Schools	{Boys Girls				
	Fifth ditto	{Boys Girls				
	Fourth (Upper Primary)* ditto	{Boys Girls	747 11	7,461 90	3*062 5	41.04 56*66
	Third (Lower Primary)* ditto	{Boys Girls	1,039 53	12,303 437	6,398 219	52-00 50 11
	Second ditto	{Boys Girls				
	First ditto	{Boys Girls				
ASSAM	Lower Primary .	{Boys Girls	534 1	1,348 3	682 2	50*39 66*66
	Upper Primary .	{Boys Girls				
	Lower Primary.....	{Boys Girls	58 1	517 2,526	400 26	13*03
COORG	Public Service Certificate Examination in Vernacular Standard VI . Boys	{Boys Girls	24 66	164 520	109 250	66*46 48*07
	Sixth Vernacular Standard Examination held in Schools	{Boys Girls				
	Fifth ditto	{Boys Girls	241 3	1,500 12	634 8	42*26 66*66
	Fourth (Upper Primary)® ditto	{Boys Girls	480 5	3,169 21	1,487 15	46*92 71*42
	Third ditto	{Boys Girls	566 10	4,747 35	2,754 35	58*04 63*63
	Second (Lower Primary)* ditto	{Boys Girls	649 11	6,743 79	4,481 53	66*45 67*08
	First ditto	{Boys Girls				
	TOTAL			17,010	9,826	57*76
TOTAL FOR INDIA*	{Boys Girls		428,171 19,328	251,010 11,421	158,621 59*09	58*64
	{Boys Girls					
	TOTAL		447,499	262,431	58*64	

* Inclusive of 364 passed candidates from the lower classes of midSe schools.
 + 1 Ditto 430 ditto ditto and tipper primary schools.
 † Inclusive of 1,0^2 mip3s in European and Eurasian schools that are inseparable from the returns.
 ° Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native Stafes that administer their own system of education.
 The standard selected by the local Government as equivalent to that of the Upper Primary Examination.
 Ditto ditto ditto Lower ditto.

Province	Total Annual Value	Total Monthly Value
MADRAS	25	800
BOMBAY	966	3000
BENGAL	9,240	30000
N.W. P. AND OUDH
PUNJAB
CENTRAL PROVINCES	8,704	...
ASSAM	3,888	...
COORC
HAIIDARABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS
Total	22,824	...

Province	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
MADRAS	33.82	[No statistics available.]
BOMBAY	7,248	2,451	4,797	18	60.87	46,453	3,330	43,123	7.17	*1,248	2,451	4,797	33.82	...
BENGAL	46	28	60.66	335	37	298	11.04	46,499	3,358	43,141	7.22	...
N.W. P. AND OUDH	6,228	3,768	2,440	1,462	28.36	3,805	2,738	58.15
PUNJAB	2,041	579	1,462	145	87.31	579	1,462	28.36
CENTRAL PROVINCES	1,143	998	382	129	253	33.77	*1,525	1,127	398	73.90	...
ASSAM	1,389	673	716	48.45	1,389	673	716	48.45	...
COORC	81	66	15	...	81.48	3	1	2	33.33	84	67	17	79.76	...
HAIIDARABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS	1,011	182	829	...	18.00	212	1	211	.47	1,223	183	1,040	14.96	...
TOTAL FOR INDIA*	17,778	8,072	9,706	45,740	48,774	4,171	44,603	8.55	66,552	12,243	54,309	18.39

* Boys' and Girls' Schools are included.
 * The term 'certificated' has a somewhat wide meaning in this Table. In Bombay and the Central Provinces all the teachers so returned have been certificated through a two-year or a three-year course in a high-class Training College. In some of the other Provinces the term 'certificated' includes the teachers who passed a pupil-teacher's certificate in a Primary School.

*The difference between the number given here and that in the Provincial Report arises from the exclusion of pupil-teachers.

SUBSIDIARY TABLES—PRIMARY EDUCATION.

Table 6.—Statement showing the number of Training Schools for Vernacular Teachers in 1881-82.

Number of Training Schools.	Provinces and Class of Institutions.	CLASSIFICATION OF THE STUDENTS BY RACE OR CREED.				Total	Expenditure	Remarks.	
		For men	For women	Total	Other				
28	MADRAS.	770	561	4*	167	61,038	82 14 10	344	
4		157	7		144	16,467	104 3 6j	25	
3*	TOTAL	927	568	4?	311	77,505	86 11 1	369	
1	BOMBAY	480	392	42	46	064,706	i 35 14 u	141	
9*		*73	62	1	4	019,485	299 12 3	8	
	TOTAL	553	454	43	50	84,191		149	
20	BENGAL.	585	55	288	79	83*562	93 0 10	11459	
2		4i		30	Jn	6,739	192 8 8		
22	TOTAL	1,048	585	55	318	90	190,301	6 12 6j	
13	N.-W. P. AND OUDH <	306	251	55		36,687	21 14 2,	369	
at		89	6	83		6,671	82 5 9!	7	
	TOTAL	395	257	55	83	143,358	113 8 0	376	
3	PUNJAB	220	98	101	14	34,886	161 81	98	
		*38	42	59	33	W97	116 3 1	Statistics not available.	
	TOTAL	358	140	160	47	52,083		9	
	CENTRAL PROVINCES.	171	155	*4		J 9,356	5 14 6	95	
		17	17			5,132	270 1 S	2	
	TOTAL	ex88	172	*4		24,488	31 10 5	97	
	ASSAM	**331	171	28	Si	51	17,940	63 9 10	19
					81	51	if 17,940	63 9 10	19
	COORG					i+1,890	315 0 0!	ffindudmg fit,200, the expenditure on the Boarding School.	
						1,890	315 0 0		
	H. A. DISTRICTS	79	66	13		3,857*	119 0 8;	19	
		•{				8,571	119 0 8	19	
	TOTAL	79	66	13					
15)	TOTAL FOR INDIA	3,37*	2,286	349	H	589	133	3,28,836	104 3 ' 1
106		515	134	60	33	265	33	71,691	141 10 10
	(TOTAL d .	(3,886*	2,420	409	47	854	156	4*00,321	109 & 6 oi

> ; b The total cost of education of each student has been calculated on the average monthly number of the students enrolled.
 * Excludes British Burma and Indian Native States that administer their own system of education.
 J. & S. Suding 2j Traasj Sdk Ajmir, with 25 pp. 38. The total expenditure incurred on these schools was Rs. 388,593.

Table 7.—Comparative Statement of the Total Expenditure p

PROVINCES.	OBJECT OF EXPENDITURE.	Years.		Years.	
		1870-71.	1881-82.	1870-71.	1881-82.
			a	R	I?
MADRAS	Boys' and Girls' Schools • Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses Scholarships a * Buildings a * Miscellaneous a *	82,796 74,799	1,39,29,027	*14	
	TOTAL	1,57,595	1,68,148		
BOMBAY	Boys* and Girls* Schools • Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses Scholarships » Buildings * Miscellaneous *	2,33,247 37,753	2,74,146 49,555	5,22,299 24,539	\$21,381 20,0^5 ^>691
	TOTAL	3,33,551	3,45,738	6,82,711	
BENGAL	Boys* and Girls* Schools Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses Scholarships a * Buildings a * Miscellaneous a *	1,75,774 1,38,382	45,26,553 70,216		i4\$3S 350 •M *K
	TOTAL	3,14,151	5,96,769		
Ni-W. P. AND OUDH	Boys* and Girls* Schools Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses Scholarships a * Buildings * Miscellaneous *	1,71,767 50,269 1,55	1,83,829 32,248	1,61,906 9,975	5E9>299
	TOTAL	2^3,55*	2,16,077	1,94,022	5,86^
	Boys* and Girls* Schools Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses Scholarships a * Buildings a * Miscellaneous a *	71,470 29,073 ***	77,271 19,751	1,47,229 17,4H	3i2^75a f•« tH **?
	TOTAL	1,00,543	97,022	1,64,640	
CENTRAL PROVINCES.	Boys* and Girls* Schools Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses Scholarships * Buildings * Miscellaneous *	46,916 10,484 4,000 *•• J	76,130 24,358 2,014 42,148	1,24,955 11,153 1,000	*4- 5,335 4^33
	TOTAL	61,400	i,44,<&>	1,37,108	
	Boys* and Girls* Schools Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses Scholarships * Buildings * Miscellaneous *		11,930 10,595		51^209 3*3\$3 *W
	TOTAL		24,171		
	Boys' and Girls* Schools Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses Scholarships * Buildings * Miscellaneous *	5,530 16	2,206 1,890		6>i& ... □ 433
	TOTAL	5,54^	4,096		
DISTRICTS	Boys* and Girls* Schools Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses Scholarships * Buildings * Miscellaneous *	77,756 2,089 ... 15,377	98,673 8,571 *16,967 10,789	35,682 3,416 18,619	
	TOTAL	95^22	1,25,000	60,879	
	TOTAL FOR INDIA	12,91^4	17,21,668	12^366	

□*. Excluding: the e&penditarecon

PRIMARY EDUCATION.

Primary Education in the official years 1870-71 and 1881-82.

EXPENDITURE FROM FEES.*		EXPENDITURE FROM OTHER SOURCES.*		TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON PRIMARY EDUCATION.		REMARKS.
Years.	Years.	Years.	Years.	Years.	Years.	
1870-71.	1881-82.	1870-71.	1881-82.	1870-71.	1881-82.	
						10 H 12 13
91,202 8^210	5,178 1,877	68,371 21,369	3,76,996 22,782	2,42,369 1,04,378	15,08,589* 77,505	f Excluding the expenditure on primary classes attached to secondary and collegiate institutions. Including the expenditure on primary classes attached to secondary schools. a Statistics not available.
99,4^	5,16,055	89,74^	3,99,778	3,46,747	25,86,0946	t Including the expenditure of £2,60,691 on unaided primary schools under inspection.
90,557 219	1,94,470	87,280 8,526	3,32,398	8,72,383	14,22,395	c A large portion of this amount was for prizes awarded in Native State schools and cannot be separated from the sum spent in scholarships.
414 1,315		74,303	82,811	2,48,756	2,12,714	d Including the expenditure of 84,25,904 on primary schools in Native States.
31,505	1,94,481	1,70,109	4,51,294	2,17,876	17,78,64#	e Excluding the cost of the primary classes of secondary schools, which may be roughly estimated at 1^5,32,861.
58,652	11,66,478 2,927	9^,57^ 20,758	4,77^,691 16,808	3,30,996 1,64,888	85,557\$ 90,301	\$ Excluding the cost of the primary classes attached to secondary schools, which may be roughly estimated at £6,10,643.
	11,69,405	1,17,328	4,94,499	4,95,884	22,75,858	including the expenditure of £143,941 on unaided primary schools under inspection.
19,634	54,797	2,21,772	87,953	5,75,079	3,65,878	
m b^4 V><.	724	12,552	3,994	72,817	43,358	g Inclusive of expenditure on primary schools for Europeans and Eurasians, which is stated to be inseparable.
	55,521	2,34,324	91,947	6,71,552	9,50,015*	k Inclusive of Rio,480 on unaided primary schools under inspection.
13,163	62,230 74	67,920 10,789*	73,444 10,160	2,99,782 ^57,283	5,35,695 52,083	x In 1870^71 municipal contributions were treated as private funds and included under ^ other sources. f Inclusive of the expenditure incurred on the training of teachers for Secondary Vernacular Schools.
	62,304	78,709	83,604	3,57,065	5,87,778	
7-395	21,902	69,273 849	36,099 116	2,48,539 22486	2,78,829 24488	The building expenditure of 1870-71 is included under "boys' and girls' schools," and cannot be separated.
MI			2,676	5,000	7*349 49457	Including the expenditure of 62,895 on unaided primary schools under inspection, but excluding the cost of industrial schools, which are attended chiefly by pupils in the primary departments of middle schools. The cost of the industrial schools was—
7,395	21,902	70,122	38,891	2,76,02s	3,60,123*	
Bgti Sill	18,016 96	Figures included in those for Bengal.	18,291 1^32	H ^ S Sis^*^H 0 S	99446 15^86	Provincial Funds 4*082 Municipal Funds , 10~ Fees 615 Other sources 452 *
	18,112		785 584	2,701 2,289		5,359
	127	1,064	11	220	5,657 16	including the expenditure of B1,281 on unaided primary schools under inspection.
***	%<<*	1,064	220	5,673	11,963	
	25,927	497	974	1,13,935	1,81,099	
	M	141	18,619	35,751®	8,571	^m Inclusive of certain expenditure on buildings, which is shown against "Miscellaneous" in General Table 3c, page xxxii.
	35,927		18,539	14,321		
b<<7	20,64,99* 7,60,8^9		974	1,56,598	2,39,74?	
				35,27420	9,09^940	
						** if for p^fing the expenditure on Primary education in Ajmir, which amounted to Rs. 89,100 in 1870-71 is included in this Table.

SUBSIDIARY TABLES—P

Table 8.—Detailed Statement showing the total expenditure on L

PROVINCES.	CLASS OF SCHOOLS.	GOVERNMENT, LOCAL AND MUNICIPAL SCHOOLS.*							AIDED SCHOOLS.*				
		3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12		
1	2	Provincial Funds.	Local Cess and Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTAL.	Provincial Funds.	Local Cess and Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTAL.		
MADRAS	Boys	53,778	2,00,896	51,896	2,766	3,08,836	67,174	2,08,697	3,05,393	1,00,215	8,64,407		
	Girls	12,137	6,172	595	465	18,374	15,596	2,350	9,403	93,410	1,44,774		
	TOTAL	65,915	2,07,068	52,491	3,231	3,27,210	82,770	2,11,047	3,14,796	1,93,625	9,09,181		
BOMBAY	Boys	2,02,928	7,21,377	1,44,920	7,155	11,77,380	9,266	3,126	5,503	20,401	3,44,497		
	Girls	34,066	51,997	948	1,315	87,486	9,484	522	3,177	34,040	47,772		
	TOTAL	3,36,994	7,73,374	1,45,868	8,470	12,64,866	18,750	3,648	8,680	54,441	3,92,269		
BENGAL	Boys	65,139	350	581	104	66,174	4,80,015	11,062	20,64,343	3,43,891	18,68,332		
	Girls	"	"	"	"	"	51,917	1,221	11,990	1,02,696	2,67,403		
	TOTAL	65,139	350	581	104	66,174	5,31,932	12,283	20,76,333	4,46,587	20,35,735		
K. W. P. AND OUDH	Boys	1,41,577	5,31,684	37,688	7,012	7,27,961	43,132	6,603	16,574	41,590	1,07,944		
	Girls	11,454	4,212	"	460	16,196	19,914	1,210	1,381	34,949	57,444		
	TOTAL	1,53,031	5,35,896	37,688	7,472	7,44,157	63,046	7,813	17,955	76,539	1,65,388		
PUNJAB	Boys	36,319	3,20,282	46,209	6,187	4,08,997	28,318	2,581	15,671	33,889	77,222		
	Girls	2,182	15,237	2	522	18,043	20,202	6,648	2,422	44,207	83,481		
	TOTAL	38,501	3,35,519	46,211	6,709	4,27,040	48,526	9,229	18,093	78,096	1,60,703		
CENTRAL PROVINCES	Boys	71,395	1,59,157	18,023	5,719	2,44,294	22,252	2,032	3,707	22,843	2,67,097		
	Girls	5,137	12,283	"	770	18,193	1,747	240	"	4,760	6,700		
	TOTAL	76,532	1,71,440	18,023	6,489	2,62,487	24,000	2,272	3,707	27,603	2,73,797		
ASSAM	Boys	9,492	3,393	96	67	13,048	14,996	51,486	17,207	17,596	99,285		
	Girls	"	"	"	"	"	643	1,568	24	3,073	5,683		
	TOTAL	9,492	3,393	96	67	13,048	15,639	51,510	17,231	20,669	104,968		
ODISHA	Boys	3,784	6,583	1,043	"	11,410	191	"	31	110	328		
	Girls	"	"	"	"	"	120	"	"	110	230		
	TOTAL	3,784	6,583	1,043	"	11,410	312	"	31	220	558		
HAIHARBAD ASSIGNED DIS-TRICTS	Boys	1,20,167	86,992	13,412	"	2,19,571	3,008	240	12,516	704	2,34,039		
	Girls	1,423	1,359	"	"	2,782	312	150	"	270	722		
	TOTAL	1,21,590	88,351	13,412	"	2,22,353	3,400	390	12,516	974	2,34,761		
WEST BENGAL	Boys	79,046	20,70,724	3,13,747	29,010	31,47,234	6,97,472	3,69,837	14,39,534	6,08,399	3,44,683		
	Girls	66,288	91,461	1,545	2,861	1,68,155	1,49,596	14,045	28,327	2,17,448	2,49,471		
	TOTAL	1,45,334	20,82,185	3,15,292	31,871	33,15,389	8,47,068	3,83,882	14,67,861	8,25,847	3,94,154		

* Excluding British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.
 † Including the expenditure on Primary education in Bihar, which amounted to Rs. 2,387.
 ‡ Including Training Schools and classes for masters of Primary Schools.

PRIMARY EDUCATION.

Departmental and Aided Primary Schools in the official year 1881-82.

TOTAL.*				17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
13	14	15	16								
Provincial Funds.	Local Cess and Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	GRAND TOTAL.*	Total expenditure on Education in 1881-82 from public funds (Provincial, Local and Municipal).	Percentage of expenditure in columns 13 and 14 to total expenditure from public funds in column 18.	Percentage of Provincial expenditure in column 13 to total expenditure in column 17.	Percentage of Provincial expenditure in column 13 to total Provincial expenditure on education.†	Percentage of total expenditure in column 17 to total expenditure on education.†	Percentage of total expenditure on Primary education‡ to total expenditure on education.†	
1,20,432	4,02,393	3,59,288	1,04,081	11,66,284	16,32,345	41.06	12.08	17.12	38.22	45.74	
47,699	8,523	9,098	93,875	1,60,295							
1,08,145	5,08,116	3,68,386	2,06,956	13,52,403							
3,02,104	7,35,513	1,50,423	27,556	12,15,696	19,82,525	57.14	25.50	30.56	30.34	57.83	
43,344	51,619	4,073	35,355	1,34,997							
3,45,728	7,87,132	1,54,496	62,922	13,50,278							
5,45,152	11,412	10,64,924	3,42,095	19,64,883	26,80,510	23.73	27.99	22.55	31.90	30.90	
51,617	1,221	11,970	1,02,626	1,67,434							
5,66,796	12,633	10,76,894	4,45,621	21,31,927							
1,84,709	5,38,287	53,842	48,302	8,25,141	15,17,595	50.74	24.04	23.18	43.70	49.21	
31,268	5,428	1,381	35,430	78,688							
2,26,077	6,42,715	55,223	83,242	8,67,257	12,31,047	35.80	16.50	15.39	36.07	36.07	
64,637	3,22,863	59,880	38,975	4,86,355							
32,285	21,985	2,424	44,728	1,02,422							
97,022	3,44,648	62,324	83,604	5,87,298							
23,518	54,840	17,393	17,222	1,13,003	2,05,076	30.56	20.40	17.90	38.07	38.48	
643	1,698	24	3,072	5,438							
24,177	56,547	17,327	20,266	1,18,447							
3,076	6,583	1,064	110	11,733	20,203	53.75	34.73	30.95	52.61	52.61	
120	110	230							
4,096	6,583	1,064	220	11,963							
1,23,235	86,322	25,927	704	2,36,228	3,24,381	65.61	52.13	53.07	67.93	67.93	
1,745	1,599	...	279	3,524							
1,28,000	87,842	25,927	974	2,39,723							
14,61,512	23,80,621	17,53,381	6,97,409	62,98,923	1,01,82,084	41.82	24.08	21.13	38.23	43.12	
2,15,994	1,05,566	20,872	3,20,406	6,71,778							
6,77,996	24,26,127	17,82,223	10,17,812	69,64,723							

* Excluding the expenditure on schools for Europeans and Burmahs.
 † Including the expenditure of unaided schools under inspection.
 ‡ Including the expenditure on all professional and technical institutions and on schools for Europeans and Burmahs.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE—PRIMARY EDUCATION.

table 9.—Return showing Municipal expenditure* on Primary Education in the official year 1881-82

Provinces.	MUNICIPAL EXPENDITURE ON PRIMARY EDUCATIONS							TOTAL.	Total Municipal expenditure on education generally.	Percentage of Municipal expenditure to total expenditure on education from Public Funds.	Percentage of Municipal expenditure on all classes of institutions of Municipal Income.	BANKASB.	
	BOTS* SCHOOLS.			Grsts* SCHOOLS.									
	Departmental.	Aided.	Un-aided.	Departmental.	Aided.	Un-aided.							
Andhra Pradesh	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	12	**	13	H 7/ r'j
Assam	3M7,715	23,822	39,470	1,623	3,756	3,225	*	69,73	88,018	9*37	7870	4*09	
Bengal	68,38,205	38,357	607	1,785	300	..	49,940	80,433a	3'6	50%	1*17	a	Exclusive of Municipal grants included in the item. Bi. 27, 733 dw. n. l. General Table a column 10, as-justical Fund expenditure on Schools (page 10).
Bihar	51,89,688	9,94*	1,623	...	1,331	929	6,7*4	24,917	1*09	26*94	'48		
Bombay	39,3<5,109	26,402	6,190	1,676	1,030	1,096	300	36*693	53,069	4*5	70*47	1*77	
Madras	28,56,338	61,327	2,631	<U	7,103	5,993	* * *	77f15*	1,51,303	16*03	5*98	5*39	Mi
Central Provinces	11,57,236	18,83a	a,032	<<*	1,330	240	..	*□*4*4	34,815	7*33	64*40	3'0X	□ * i
Assam	53,768	in	75	..	M 1	..	4<< <	75	300	0 9	30*83	*39	- I
Madras	15,099	' I
Madras	1,03,330	580	120	..	496	ISO	MI	*346	1,377	*53	97*75	1*33	- \:MI
Madras	2,13,36,458	1,69,219	54,066	3,399	15,489	11,224	1,339	54*36	4,33,182	5*78	58*76	2*03	..yij ..i; i ..M-i i

* Excludes grants to European and Eurasian Schools.
 X Includes Municipal grants to technical and to European and Eurasian Schools.
 a Excludes expenditure from Public Funds on Primary Schools for Europeans and Eurasians.
 including Ajmer, British Burma and all States that administer their own system of education.
 The figures in this column have been compiled from the Provincial Administration Reports for 1881-82.

SUBSIDIARY TABLES - PRIMARY EDUCATION.

Table 10.—Statement showing the average cost* of educating each pupil in Primary Schools in the year 1881-82.

PROVINCE AND CLASS OF SCHOOLS.	DEPARTMENTAL SCHOOLS.			AIDED SCHOOLS.			UNA AIDED SCHOOLS.	Total cost	
	Total cost.	Cost to Provincial Funds.	Cost to Local Rates or Cesses.	Cost to Municipal Funds.	Total cost	Cost to Provincial Funds.			Cost to Local Rates or Cesses.
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	ft a. A	ft a. p.	ft a. p.	ft a. p.	ft a. A	ft a. A	ft a. p.	ft a. p.	ft a.
MADRAS Primary Schools for Boys	6 0 10	0 13 9	37 10	0 8 2	4 5 9	0 5 3	1 5 1	0 3 3	2 0
(Girls)	5 2 0	2 2 3	0 12 11	1 4 1	11 5 0	2 13 5	0 0 2	0 3 2	8 5
TOTAL	6 1 11	0 18 3	363	0 9 3	4 16 9	0 7 8	1 5 3	0 6 5	2 6
MADRAS Boys	4 5 10	1 1 3	2 6 10	0 2 9	4 1 6	1 0 1	0 4 4	0 0 2	4 5
(Girls)	6 0 7	1 11 8	4 1 11	0 1 9	10 4 11	2 4 9	0 0 10	0 1 2	5 8
TOTAL	4 7 0	1 18	2 8 1	0 2 9	6 0 3	1 6 7	0 3 3	0 0 8	4 6
BOMBAY Boys	4 0 3	3 4 3	11*	..ft	2 10 0	0 10 7	0 0 2	0 0 1	2 7
(Girls)	»»»	119	..ft	...	11 7 4	3 6 11	□.□»	0 1 4	7 4
TOTAL	4 0 3	3 14 3	□..	..ft	2 12 9	0 11 6	0 0 2	0 0 1	2 9
BENGAL Boys	3 10 6	0 9 6	2 10 9	0 2 3	10 12 2	4 5 2	0 0 8	0 9 11	9 4
(Girls)	4 7 5	3 2 8	0 14 1	0 4 7	10 12 8	3 13 0	«*»	0 3 8	6 4
TOTAL	3 10 8	0 10 4	2 20 3	0 2 3	10 12 3	4 2 7	0 0 8	0 7 11	8 10
PUNJAB Boys	4 12 8	0 6 6	2 18 8	0 12 0	7 6 9	2 13 6	..ft	0 4 7	M 1
(Girls)	4 11 5	0 9 1	2 2 10	1 13 2	12 12 6	3 4 3	0 3 10	0 10 11	M*
TOTAL	4 12 7	0 6 8	2 18 8	0 12 9	9 6 4	3 0 0	0 1 8	0 6 11	M 1
CENTRAL PROVINCES Boys	3 14 1	0 15 9	2 1 9	0 5 4	2 12 2	1 3 4	...	0 1 9	0 14
(Girls)	8 2 5	...	4 9 4	0 8 1	13 0 9	3 6 0	...	0 7 8	1 1
TOTAL	3 15 0	0 15 0	2 3 8	0 5 5	3 0 8	4 4 3	...	0 8 7	0 14
ASSAM Boys	2 0 8	2 0 8%*	2 18 0	0 5 7	1 0 2	..#	0 8
(Girls)*	ii*	...	5 3 11	0 9 11	1 10 2	..*	2 3
TOTAL	2 0 8	2 0 8	...	M 1	3 0 2	0 5 8	1 9 2	M i	0 9
COORG Boys	3 4 9	0 10 0	2 3 9	..*	5 10 8	3 5 11	...	M*	rk*
(Girls)	..*	..*	..ft	...	14 6 0	7 8 0	«««
TOTAL	3 4 9	0 10 0	2 3 9	...	7 9 2	4 4 8	..*
ARAB AD Boys	6 1 7	3 8 11	2 0 3	0 0 4	4 1 3	0 12 2	0 0 6	0 0 8	...
(Girls)	10 9 2	5 6 10	3 4 3	1 14 1	7 2 10	3 0 11	«!»	1 7 4	*1*
TOTAL	6 2 4	3 9 2	2 0 6	0 0 8	4 2 8	0 13 1	0 0 6	0 1 0	«««
TOTAL FOR INDIA Boys	4 5 7	0 14 9	2 9 7	0 4 3	3 11 11	0 10 6	0 5 0	0 0 10	2 13
(Girls)	5 10 7	1 12 10	3 1 1	0 10 4	11 3 11	3 1 8	0 3 3	0 3 5	7 3
TOTAL	4 6 5	0 18 4	2 9 11	0 4 6	3 7 1	0 12 1	0 4 11	0 3 0	3 2 1

* Calculated on the average monthly number of the pupils enrolled. In Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

Handwritten notes and symbols on the right margin, including 'Aa', 'm', 'I', 'fcl', 'H'u', and 'I'.

SUBSIDIARY TABLES-SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Table 2 .—Return of Pupils learning Languages in Secondary Schools at the end of the official year 1881-82,

Province and Grade of Schools.	NUMBER OF PUPILS IN DEPARTMENTAL SCHOOLS LEARNING			NUMBER OF PUPILS IN AIDED SCHOOLS LEARNING			NUMBER OF PUPILS IN UNAIDED SCHOOLS LEARNING			REMARKS.	
	English.	A. Qassic.	A. Vernacular.	English.	A. Classic.	A. Vernacular.	English.	A. Classic.	A. Vernacular.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
ANDRAS <<<	High /For Boys . English	1,142	156	986	2,995	485	2,570	699	135	586	
	SCHOOLS. (, Girls . English	1		1	1						
	MIDDLE J ^o Boys * {vernacular!	5,081	503	4,682	9,824	1,116	8,522	3,590	416	3,378	
	SCHOOLS. } ,, Girls .	15		35	69		83	96		393	
TRAINING COLLEGE FOR MASTERS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS	29	2	27			61			90		
TOTAL	6,268	661	5,756	12,889	1,601	11,644	4,385	551	4,557		
BOMBAY <<<	[SCHOOLS. } For Boys . English .	3,601	3>153	r .002	1,226	765	577	904	554	251	
	MIDDLE / ,, Boys . English	7,569	180	5,356	3,780	261	1,510	2,908	242	802	
	I SCHOOLS. \ ,, Girls . English				555		81				
TOTAL	11,170	3,333	6,358	5,561	1,026	2,468	3,812*	756*	1,053*	* Exclusive of the pupils learning these ^ languages in unaided schools not under inspection.	
BRNGAL <<<	High /For Boys . English	14,720	5,852	7,286	11,858	4,051	8,367	15,634	5,817	7,598	
	SCHOOLS. \ ,, Girls . English	ss	7	93				84	24	73	
	Middle S ^o @Boys * { Vernacular.	932	435	1,027	18,966	269	25,160	4,640	109	6,769	
SCHOOLS. \ ,, Girls . ;	^387	25	9,794	2,867	X89	41,262	165		4,351		
TOTAL	17,122	6^97	x8^99f	33>84@t	4^509	78422f	2>,533f	5,950	i8^8rof	f Incasree <rf attached Primary Departments.	
EN.-W. PRO-VINCES AND P. OUDH.	^ } For Boys.	2,927	2,360	762	2>,350	1,402	1,108	50	21	29	
	Middle \ ,, /English	4**	M37	3>545	62	223	29				
	[SCHOOLS. j ^o \ Vernacular.				4	55	6		*««		
TOTAL	2,927	3,597	4*3<>7	2^16	1,680	1,205	50	21	29		
PUNJAB	SCHOOLS. } For Boys . IveSacular'.	312	335	143	118	83					
	MIDDLE f. Boys . jveS^	141	32	32	73	76	77	Statist	ics not a	vail able.	
	SCHOOLS. ^ ^ G.Ws English .	i>897	1,903	1,891	767	760	765				
TRAINING COLLEGE FOR MASTERS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS .	27	3i	31	8	** 8	7					
TOTAL	2,230	5>>5	4,801	893	959	935		
CENTRAL PROVINCES/	SCHOOLS. *	149	149		172	168					
	SCHOOLS. } >> ^ English .	1,952	209	1,898	499	132	452				
	TOTAL	2,101	358	1,898	671	300	452	
KSSAM	" Schools. } For Boys . English *	1,890	839	1,313	125	37	93	238	55	181	
	Middle I p> /English	87		123	M39	46	2,363	201	*«*	388	
	w Schools. j ^o ^ Vernacular.			1,382		42	1,537			55	
TOTAL	i>9775	839	2,818 ^	1^2645	125	3,9935	4295	55	635	X Indaawe of. attached. Ptriary D^rfcmeats.	
SOORG j	" Schools. } For Boys . English .	38	...	33				
	. Sil } - Boys . English .	119		119					* >		
	TOTAL	157		157	***	..*	
H. A. DISTRICTS.	Schools. - English	61	59	60				
	1 & fff. j < B^ys . English .	972	247	972				* ««	...		
	TOTAL	i>033	306	1,032			
TOTAL: FOR INBIAS	High /For Boys .	24,840	*2,935	11,622	18,844	7,099	17,515	6,582	8,648	f **1**	
	Schools. \ ,, Girls .	S3	7	j 94	63	55	B4	24	73	%□ v	
	Middle / ,, Boys . *	19,996	7^8	33^528	37^42	3^3* 8	82^516	11^04	767	116,146	.. * r.^
Schools. \ ,, Girls .	40	3	224	793		865	106		219		
Training Colleges for Masters of Secondary Schools ^ .	ss	33	1 58					* ««	-		
TOTAL	44,99*	20^96	! 45526	s7&p	10^00	96,119	2^209	7,323	Uso83		

Exclusive of AJnur, British Banna and ...

SUBSIDIARY TABLES—SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Table 3.—Classification of pupils in High and Middle Schools* according to race or creed for 1881-82.

PROVINCE OR TERRITORY	English	Other	Total	Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls
HIADEAS	High J For Boys . English	4,242	117	
	SCHOOLS Girls . English	5,984	723	
	MIDDLE SCHOOLS Boy	493	2	
	TBAximre College job Mabtbs op SCHOOLS	65	1	
TOTAL	20,808	844		
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls	88.57	3.47		
BOMBAY	English	4,416	118	
	Middle J Boys English	10,386	781	
	SCHOOLS Girls English	6	2	
	TOTAL	4,808	901	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls	72.08	4.39		
MUMBAI	High J For Boys . English	39,367	3,831	
	SCHOOLS Girls . English	32,300	5,33*	
	Middle J Boys	48,189	735	
	TOTAL	127,777	10,901	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls	86.55	8.93		
MADRAS	English	4,396	892	
	Middle J Boys	3,007	796	
	SCHOOLS Girls	7,303	688	
	TOTAL	15,506	2,364	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls	79.16	15.30		
MYSORE	English	296	91	
	Middle J Boys	1,740	64	
	SCHOOLS Girls	1,469	703	
	TOTAL	3,505	1,468	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls	59.68	30.02		
PUNJAB	English	396	17	
	Middle J Boys	2,139	230	
	SCHOOLS Girls	437	47	
	TOTAL	2,872	294	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls	87.91	8.91		
RAJASTHAN	English	1,903	302	
	Middle J Boys	2,072	396	
	SCHOOLS Girls	2,462	474	
	TOTAL	6,437	1,172	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls	78.72	14.33		
SINDH	English	116		
	Middle J Boys			
	SCHOOLS Girls			
	TOTAL	154		
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls	69.09	1.27		
WEST BENGAL	English	59	1	
	Middle J Boys	231	7	
	SCHOOLS Girls	90	8	
	TOTAL	380	16	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls	95.7*	2.64		
ASSAM	English	54,977	5X33	
	Middle J Boys	17,816	6a	
	SCHOOLS Girls	614	497	
	TOTAL	72,407	10,427	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls	83.67	14.05		

(a) Inclusive of the pupils attached Middle and Departments.

(5) 69.6 per cent, are Coorga.

(c) Excluding 73 pupils attending Middle Schools attached to Primary School

SUBSIDIARY TABLES

Table 5.—Expenditure on Secondary

PROVINCE AND GRADE OF SCHOOLS.	DEPARTMENTAL SCHOOLS.*							AIDED SCHOOLS.*					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
	Provincial Revenues.	Local and Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTAL.	Percentage of fees to total expenditure.	Provincial Revenues.	Local and Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTAL.		
MADRAS	High Schools: For Boys: English 48,247; Girls: English 465 Middle Schools: For Boys: English 51,949; Girls: English 428 Training Colleges for Masters of Secondary Schools: 9,052	For Boys: English 544; Girls: English 13,024 For Boys: English 137; Girls: English 63,784 For Boys: English 232; Girls: English 113	For Boys: English 29,594; Girls: English 1,389 For Boys: English 1,327; Girls: English 2,246 For Boys: English 232; Girls: English 232	For Boys: English 1,389; Girls: English 602 For Boys: English 2,246; Girls: English 1,389 For Boys: English 232; Girls: English 232	For Boys: English 79,684; Girls: English 602 For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	For Boys: English 37.03; Girls: English 22.76 For Boys: English 48.95; Girls: English 20.19 For Boys: English 2.19; Girls: English 1.685	For Boys: English 32,812; Girls: English 12 For Boys: English 41,457; Girls: English 40,743 For Boys: English 1,389; Girls: English 154	For Boys: English 374; Girls: English 390 For Boys: English 374; Girls: English 390 For Boys: English 374; Girls: English 390	For Boys: English 12,204; Girls: English 31,297 For Boys: English 3,191; Girls: English 11,790 For Boys: English 3,191; Girls: English 11,790	For Boys: English 60,204; Girls: English 1 For Boys: English 40,743; Girls: English 37 For Boys: English 1,389; Girls: English 154	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	
BOMBAY	High Schools: For Boys: English 1,19,081; Girls: English 51,583 Middle Schools: For Boys: English 28,319; Girls: English 1,71,664	For Boys: English 28,319; Girls: English 60,354 For Boys: English 2,197; Girls: English 2,197	For Boys: English 86,169; Girls: English 63,544 For Boys: English 2,197; Girls: English 2,197	For Boys: English 10,617; Girls: English 2,197 For Boys: English 2,197; Girls: English 2,197	For Boys: English 1,26,775; Girls: English 1,46,094 For Boys: English 2,197; Girls: English 2,197	For Boys: English 44.59; Girls: English 44.73 For Boys: English 44.73; Girls: English 44.73	For Boys: English 17,687; Girls: English 59,542 For Boys: English 59,542; Girls: English 59,542	For Boys: English 374; Girls: English 374 For Boys: English 374; Girls: English 374	For Boys: English 12,204; Girls: English 31,297 For Boys: English 3,191; Girls: English 11,790	For Boys: English 31,297; Girls: English 11,790 For Boys: English 11,790; Girls: English 11,790	For Boys: English 40,743; Girls: English 37 For Boys: English 1,389; Girls: English 154	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232
BENGAL	High Schools: For Boys: English 1,67,429; Girls: English 13,000 Middle Schools: For Boys: English 7,528; Girls: English 3,498	For Boys: English 931; Girls: English 3,488 For Boys: English 600; Girls: English 2,197	For Boys: English 2,71,994; Girls: English 3,488 For Boys: English 2,197; Girls: English 2,197	For Boys: English 30,111; Girls: English 275 For Boys: English 6,275; Girls: English 880	For Boys: English 4,70,465; Girls: English 15,688 For Boys: English 3,276; Girls: English 13,808	For Boys: English 57.81; Girls: English 22.52 For Boys: English 12.00; Girls: English 12.00	For Boys: English 54,139; Girls: English 7,708 For Boys: English 1,000; Girls: English 1,000	For Boys: English 3,860; Girls: English 390 For Boys: English 3,860; Girls: English 390	For Boys: English 1,07,006; Girls: English 91,553 For Boys: English 1,54,788; Girls: English 91,553	For Boys: English 76,901; Girls: English 1,54,788 For Boys: English 91,553; Girls: English 91,553	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	
ANDHRA PRADESH	High and Middle Schools: For Boys: English 1,66,718; Girls: English 36,163	For Boys: English 4,363; Girls: English 18,335 For Boys: English 1,444; Girls: English 1,444	For Boys: English 1,636; Girls: English 1,444 For Boys: English 1,580; Girls: English 1,580	For Boys: English 3,280; Girls: English 1,580 For Boys: English 1,580; Girls: English 1,580	For Boys: English 1,89,017; Girls: English 56,477 For Boys: English 1,89,017; Girls: English 56,477	For Boys: English 7.73; Girls: English 4.77 For Boys: English 4.77; Girls: English 4.77	For Boys: English 49,777; Girls: English 1,468 For Boys: English 1,468; Girls: English 1,468	For Boys: English 3,938; Girls: English 42 For Boys: English 42; Girls: English 42	For Boys: English 3,108; Girls: English 42 For Boys: English 42; Girls: English 42	For Boys: English 53,087; Girls: English 1,524 For Boys: English 1,524; Girls: English 1,524	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	
PUNJAB	High Schools: For Boys: English 59,946; Girls: English 3,057 Middle Schools: For Boys: English 7,528; Girls: English 49,144 Training Colleges for Masters of Secondary Schools: 16,182	For Boys: English 684; Girls: English 4,656 For Boys: English 319; Girls: English 19,822 For Boys: English 49,144; Girls: English 3	For Boys: English 4,656; Girls: English 319 For Boys: English 4,047; Girls: English 3	For Boys: English 55,286; Girls: English 3,276 For Boys: English 3,276; Girls: English 13,808	For Boys: English 8,27; Girls: English 12.45 For Boys: English 12.45; Girls: English 7.10	For Boys: English 8.27; Girls: English 12.45 For Boys: English 12.45; Girls: English 7.10	For Boys: English 6.89; Girls: English 40.54 For Boys: English 40.54; Girls: English 40.54	For Boys: English 1,057; Girls: English 2,387 For Boys: English 2,387; Girls: English 4,333	For Boys: English 677; Girls: English 4,333 For Boys: English 4,333; Girls: English 4,333	For Boys: English 6,071; Girls: English 44,580 For Boys: English 44,580; Girls: English 44,580	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	
CENTRAL PROVINCES	High Schools: For Boys: English 8,530; Girls: English 43,468 Middle Schools: For Boys: English 7,149; Girls: English 12,891	For Boys: English 1,093; Girls: English 5,092 For Boys: English 3,448; Girls: English 3,448	For Boys: English 1,093; Girls: English 3,448 For Boys: English 3,448; Girls: English 3,448	For Boys: English 6,643; Girls: English 57,837 For Boys: English 57,837; Girls: English 57,837	For Boys: English 11.36; Girls: English 8.78 For Boys: English 8.78; Girls: English 8.78	For Boys: English 11.36; Girls: English 8.78 For Boys: English 8.78; Girls: English 8.78	For Boys: English 6.89; Girls: English 40.54 For Boys: English 40.54; Girls: English 40.54	For Boys: English 822; Girls: English 1,812 For Boys: English 1,812; Girls: English 1,812	For Boys: English 1,399; Girls: English 3,997 For Boys: English 3,997; Girls: English 3,997	For Boys: English 6,488; Girls: English 3,997 For Boys: English 3,997; Girls: English 3,997	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	
ASSAM	High Schools: For Boys: English 26,414; Girls: English 512 Middle Schools: For Boys: English 12,891; Girls: English 4,179	For Boys: English 21,271; Girls: English 316 For Boys: English 4,179; Girls: English 10	For Boys: English 1,679; Girls: English 10 For Boys: English 10; Girls: English 10	For Boys: English 49,374; Girls: English 828 For Boys: English 17,080; Girls: English 30,448	For Boys: English 50.71; Girls: English 10.26 For Boys: English 10.26; Girls: English 10.26	For Boys: English 50.71; Girls: English 10.26 For Boys: English 10.26; Girls: English 10.26	For Boys: English 8.99; Girls: English 48.92 For Boys: English 48.92; Girls: English 48.92	For Boys: English 1,685; Girls: English 10,261 For Boys: English 10,261; Girls: English 10,261	For Boys: English 285; Girls: English 4,735 For Boys: English 4,735; Girls: English 4,735	For Boys: English 1,511; Girls: English 11,315 For Boys: English 11,315; Girls: English 11,315	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	
BIHAR	High Schools: For Boys: English 7,518; Girls: English 41,139 Middle Schools: For Boys: English 12,891; Girls: English 4,179	For Boys: English 1,160; Girls: English 810 For Boys: English 4,179; Girls: English 1,160	For Boys: English 1,160; Girls: English 810 For Boys: English 810; Girls: English 810	For Boys: English 8,698; Girls: English 49,374 For Boys: English 49,374; Girls: English 49,374	For Boys: English 13.37; Girls: English 13.37 For Boys: English 13.37; Girls: English 13.37	For Boys: English 13.37; Girls: English 13.37 For Boys: English 13.37; Girls: English 13.37	For Boys: English 8.99; Girls: English 48.92 For Boys: English 48.92; Girls: English 48.92	For Boys: English 1,685; Girls: English 10,261 For Boys: English 10,261; Girls: English 10,261	For Boys: English 285; Girls: English 4,735 For Boys: English 4,735; Girls: English 4,735	For Boys: English 1,511; Girls: English 11,315 For Boys: English 11,315; Girls: English 11,315	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	
MIZORAM	High Schools: For Boys: English 39,847; Girls: English 1,689 Middle Schools: For Boys: English 12,891; Girls: English 4,179	For Boys: English 28,566; Girls: English 1,689 For Boys: English 4,179; Girls: English 1,689	For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689 For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689	For Boys: English 67,282; Girls: English 1,689 For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689	For Boys: English 45.23; Girls: English 18.548 For Boys: English 18.548; Girls: English 18.548	For Boys: English 45.23; Girls: English 18.548 For Boys: English 18.548; Girls: English 18.548	For Boys: English 8.99; Girls: English 48.92 For Boys: English 48.92; Girls: English 48.92	For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689 For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689	For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689 For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689	For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689 For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	
WEST BENGAL	High Schools: For Boys: English 11,847; Girls: English 41,139 Middle Schools: For Boys: English 12,891; Girls: English 4,179	For Boys: English 144; Girls: English 810 For Boys: English 4,179; Girls: English 1,160	For Boys: English 144; Girls: English 810 For Boys: English 810; Girls: English 810	For Boys: English 11,661; Girls: English 49,374 For Boys: English 49,374; Girls: English 49,374	For Boys: English 13.37; Girls: English 13.37 For Boys: English 13.37; Girls: English 13.37	For Boys: English 13.37; Girls: English 13.37 For Boys: English 13.37; Girls: English 13.37	For Boys: English 8.99; Girls: English 48.92 For Boys: English 48.92; Girls: English 48.92	For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689 For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689	For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689 For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689	For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689 For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	
INDIA	High Schools: For Boys: English 6,02,849; Girls: English 12,465 Middle Schools: For Boys: English 3,91,723; Girls: English 5,305 Training Colleges for Masters of Secondary Schools: 25,204	For Boys: English 429,776; Girls: English 3,605 For Boys: English 1,88,000; Girls: English 223 For Boys: English 113; Girls: English 8,064	For Boys: English 47,086; Girls: English 16,000 For Boys: English 7,30,936; Girls: English 6,590 For Boys: English 33,288; Girls: English 33,288	For Boys: English 11,06,537; Girls: English 16,000 For Boys: English 7,30,936; Girls: English 6,590 For Boys: English 33,288; Girls: English 33,288	For Boys: English 40.56; Girls: English 22.52 For Boys: English 12.00; Girls: English 12.00 For Boys: English 12.00; Girls: English 12.00	For Boys: English 40.56; Girls: English 22.52 For Boys: English 12.00; Girls: English 12.00 For Boys: English 12.00; Girls: English 12.00	For Boys: English 8.99; Girls: English 48.92 For Boys: English 48.92; Girls: English 48.92	For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689 For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689	For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689 For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689	For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689 For Boys: English 1,689; Girls: English 1,689	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	For Boys: English 1,290,923; Girls: English 232 For Boys: English 9,052; Girls: English 232	
TOTAL	1,46,793	73,666	24,472	4,079	2,40,830	8.99	28,125	3,444	5,577	39,890	1,46,793		

* Expenditure on Secondary and Elementary Schools.

SUBSIDIARY TABLES—SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Table 6.—Tuition-fees in High and Middle Schools in the official year 1881-82.

PROVINCE AND GRADE OF SCHOOLS.	DEPARTMENTAL SCHOOLS.		AIDED SCHOOLS.		Highest monthly fee.	Lowest monthly fee.	Highest monthly fee.	Lowest monthly fee.	No. of Schools.	Total Expenditure.	Average Monthly Fee.
	Highest monthly fee.	Lowest monthly fee.	Highest monthly fee.	Lowest monthly fee.							
MADRAS	High Schools	3 8 0	2 8 0	5 0 0	1 12 0	3703	37*76	61*95			
	Middle Schools	3 0 0	0 6 0	No fixed rates		22*76	92-31*				
	Boys	2 8 0	1 4 0	0 0 0	0 8 0	48*65	57*83	62*43			
	Girls	2 0 0	0 4 0	0 0 0	0 8 0	29*19	5*7	13*73			
BOMBAY	High Schools	4 0 0	1 0 0	5 0 0	0 8 0	4469	24*17	14*32			
	Middle Schools	3 0 0	0 4 0	3 0 0	0 4 0	44*79	32*41	14*97			
	High Schools	5 0 0	1 0 0	Unkn own		57*81	44*23	48*55			
BENGAL	High Schools					32*18	24*72	36*09			
	Middle Schools					2796	31*31	18*78			
N. W. P. AND OUDH.	High Schools	1 8 0	0 3 0	5 0 0	0 3 0	7*73	2*94	4*7*			
	Middle Schools	0 4 0	0 1 0	0 2 0	0 1 0	4*17	13*5*				
PUNJAB	High Schools	5 0 0	0 14 0	0 15 0	0 1 0	8*27	4*84				
	Middle Schools	2 8 0	0 8 0	0 15 0	0 1 0	12*20	8*24				
	Training College	0 6 0	0 1 0			7*10	14*89				
CENTRAL PROVINCES	High Schools	1 0 0	1 0 0	3 0 0	0 2 0	11*36	9*13				
	Middle Schools	0 8 0	0 3 0	0 8 0	0 0 0	878	14*17				
ASSAM	High Schools	3 0 0	0 8 0	2 4 0	0 6 0	50*13	46*90				
	Middle Schools	1 0 0	0 8 0	18 0 0	0 1 0	38*16	24*74	26*44			
COORG	High Schools	1 0 0	1 0 0			13*37					
	Middle Schools	0 1 2 0	0 12 0								
AIDARA B A D C ASSIGNED DISTRICTS	High Schools	100	0 12 0			1*20					
	Middle Schools	0 8 0	0 4 0			1*91					
AVERAGE FOR INDIA	High Schools	5 0 0	0 8 0	5 0 0	0 0 3	40*69	3*14*	4052			
	Middle Schools	3 0 0	0 6 0	1 0 0	0 1 0	22*52	6 9 6				
	Training Colleges	3 0 0	0 1 0	4 0 0	0 0 3	25*97	3229				
TOTAL		5 0 0	0 0 6	5 0 0	0 0 2	33-85					

The total expenditure was Rs. 33,85, of which Rs. 1,20 were met from fees, and Rs. 32,65 from Government grants. In attached summary departmental schools are excluded. Excluding Ajmir, the total expenditure was Rs. 32,45.

SUBSIDIARY TABLES-SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Table 7. Statement showing the average annual cost* of educating each pupil in 1881-82.

PROVINCE AND GAJDE OF SCHOOLS.	UNPAID SCHOOLS.			AIDED SCHOOLS.			UNPAID
	Total average annual cost of educating each pupil.	Average annual cost to Provincial Funds.	Average annual cost to Local and Municipal Funds.	Total average annual cost of educating each pupil.	Average annual cost to Provincial Funds.	Average annual cost to Local and Municipal Funds.	Total average cost of educating each pupil.
MADRAS	High Schools . 5						
	For Boys . English	77 4 7	46 12 9	0 8 5	55 14 4	12 4 4	34 6 6
	For Girls . English	100 5 4	77 8 0		13 0 0	<#	
	Boys . j (English .	29 3 4	11 12 2	2 11 9	21 10 1	4 9 3	0 0 \$ 20 3
	C Vernacular	10 15 0		10 15 0	704	3 13 9	3 * 5 3
	f English .	58 12 4	32 14 9	8 11 1	83 13 11	27 15 6	24 13 7
C Vernacular	0 14 5			20 15 5	7 12 9	21 3 v	
TRAINING COLLEGE FOR MASTERS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS .	502 14 2	502 14 2					
BOMBAY	High Schools . For Boys . English .	59 2 4	27 10 9	252	48 is 1	15 4 11	73 9 7
	Boys . English	20 8 7	708	3 15 9	22 6 10	6 8	20 9 7
	Girls . English .				38 14 11	9 3 7	
BENGAL	High Schools . For Boys . English .	34 10 2	12 5 2	0 11	21 7 8	4 12 10	0 5 5 9 7 5
	Girls . English .	154 14 0	120 0 0	<#			
	Boys . English .	20 15 5	13 7 2	0 8 5	14 5 3	4 9 4	0 4 9 8 13
W. P. AND OUDH	Middle Schools . For Boys . English .	896	5 7 6	0 0 11	7 to 8	2 12 4	0 10
	C Vernacular	7 1	26 10 2		54 12 10	12 0 9	
	Girls . English .	70 6 9	62 1 to	X 10 2	47 7 0	20 13	1 12 14 5
UNJAB	High Schools . For Boys . English .	162 3 3	146 13 1	1 15 5	98 5 10	43 6 5	77 <
	C Vernacular	116 6 7	105 6 7				Statistic*
	Boys . English .	54 6 5	38 5 5	7 7 3	66 6 8	127 2 9	302 not
CENTRAL PROVINCES . J	Middle Schools . For Boys . English .	18 14 10	0 3 3	17 5 10			w # 3 bi N f e M r
	C Vernacular				378 7 if	48 14 3	
	Girls . English .						
SSAM	High Schools . For Boys . English .	96 3 8	85 4 9		89 1 9	37 12 gi	5 8 4
	C Middle Schools . For Boys . English .	33 4 5	24 13 8	418	25 8 11	10 3 7	3 10 5
	Girls . English .	24 13 6	11 15 2		26 142	13 3 *	a 7
COORG	High Schools . For Boys . English .	7 2 2	467		13 12 5	4 14 2 f o 22	5 jr .
	C Middle Schools . For Boys . English .	11 2 2	7 1 1 8		896	3 H 9	* i 3 lf .
	C Vernacular						
H. A. DISTRICTS	High Schools . For Boys . English .	68 40	5 6 8 s				
	C Middle Schools . For Boys . English .	239 3 6	= 236 5 5				
	Boys . English .	50 5 6	49 5 3	0 0 id			
AVERAGE FOR INDIA* . Middle Schools	High Schools . For Boys . English .	-0 3 9	24 * 3 8		a 9 iof 32 * 5 3	9 4 6	a 8 10 13
	C Middle Schools . For Boys . English .	151 12 8	117 9 6		45 0 5	17 13 5	0 s 4
	Girls . English .	21 3 9	11 4 **		3 12 8 1 12 14 0	4 1 5	
TRAINING COLLEGES FOR MASTERS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS .	462 5 4	350 0 10	xi 2 4 5				
TOTAL	32 0 3	17 6 8	Z 10 XX	x 6 12 xl	5 i 5 * 4	< W;	

* Calculated on the average number of the pupils enrolled. + This is under European management.
 * The cost of the school attached to the Oriental College, being inseparable from the College expenditure.
 JH'ck W

SUBSIDIARY TABLES—COLLEGIATE EDUCATION.

Table 1.—Comparative Statistics of attendance in Arts Colleges* for the official years 1870-71 and 1881-82.

PROVINCES.	1870-71								1881-82.							
	DEPART- MENTAL		AIDED		UN- AIDED		TOTAL.		DEPART- MENTAL		AIDED		UNAIDED		TOTAL.	
	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.
X	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	if
MADRAS *	5	288	6	130	XX	4x8	10	742	11	803	3	124	24	h66f
BOMBAY	3	250	2	47	5	297	3	3u	2	139	1	25	6	- #8
BENGAL * . . .	11	980	5	394	t	...	16	ib>374	12	+1,305	5	§895	4	538	21	2>7*
N*W. P. AND OUDH	03	76	5	8	ti,375	3	172	2	***57	tti	20	*	□am
WNJAB #		102	...	#t	2.	102	1	103	• M	—	X	m
CENTRAL PROVINCES		»«*	...	**□	I	t>5	...u	X	
TOTAL FOR INDIA U	24	1,656	100	1,870	42	3,566	30ii	2,698	20	**1,994	9	707	59	

* The Statistics for Oriental Colleges are given separately in Tables 1a to 5a (See pp. lxvi—lrvii) and are excluded from Tables 1—8.
 Two unaided Colleges with 24 pupils have not been returned.
 In 1870-71, 6 matriculated pupils (girls) in the College Department of the Bethune School and 23 non-matriculated students in the Sanskrit College in Calcutta were included in the statistics.
 Exclusive of three matriculated students (girls) reading for the F. A. examination in the Free Church Normal School.
 In 1870-71, the Ajmir College, which, with its attached Collegiate School, contained 246 pupils.
 In finding the pupils of attached Collegiate Schools. The number of undergraduates in the Colleges of the N.-W. F. and Oudh is not included.
 The total number of undergraduates in the aided Colleges of British India in 1870-71 was therefore about 660.
 ** Excluded the pupils of attached Collegiate Schools.
 There were two other unaided Colleges in this Province, from which no returns have been received.
 In 1870-71, British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education. In Assam, Coorg and the Hyderabad the Arts Colleges.
 In 1870-71, the Ajmir College and attached Collegiate School, which were attended by 225 pupils.

SUBSIDIARY TABLES—COLLEGIATE EDUCATION.

Table 2*—Classification of the Students by race or creed for the official year 1881-82.

PROVINCE.	DIAPAETMBNTAL COLLEGBB.							AIDED COLLEGBS.							UNTAIDED COLLEGBS.							TOTAL.							QBAWD TOTAL.	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28		29
MADRAS.	704	13	...	IM	16	10	...	688	18	89	6	3	110	12	3	30	**7	18	a	1,669	
BOMBAY.	*49	6	...	55	I	IS	I	...	48	8	5	2	as	349	7	...	X03	9	5	a	475	
URNAI.	93*03	5*75	7t	5t	4:	807	30	31	34	3	509	28	a,53*	X06	28	30	35	2,738
N.W. P. ANDOUDII.	155	*4	3	133	ax	2	3	1	303	36	mi	349	
PUNJAB.	84	13	3	84	*3	3	...	3	X03	
(J8NTEAL PLOVLUCKS)	20	5	59	5
INDIA.	*46S	J	98	3*	...	4	...	>0	...	4*	110	...	7	6&	4)8*7	*97	3	X03	166	64	&	5:3W	

* j Percnt4gs of papUa of wwhrae or oroid to the total i twnaUw oft fnse roll* , , * . * . * \Proportioit 0* o*ah r<< 0* omdto total population.

SUBSIDIARY TABLES—COLLEGIATE EDUCATION.

Table 3.—Results of the Higher University Examinations in the official year 1881-82.

Examination Class or Coll. ass.	M. A.		B. A.		B. Sc.		P. A.		Previous Examination.*		B. Sc.		IBT B.Sc.		Total examined.	Total number passed.	Percents** of passed candidates to the total number examined.
	Exd.	Passed.	Exd.	Passed.	Exd.	Passed.	Exd.	Passed.	Exd.	Passed.	Exd.	Passed.	Exd.	Passed.			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Departmental			107	71			23	144	MI								
HABEAS... Aided.	> 9	5	78	43			358	156									
(Unaided, Private Students)							48	34									
Departmental	4	x	95	28	66	*4			18a	4T	6	t	2				
BOMBAY... Aided.	4	.3	SO	8	32	10			81	26	I	1					
Unaided									15	4							
Departmental	St	as	148	59			378	171									
S9Eff6AE... Aided.	*5	4	100	44			304	So									
(Unaided)	x	4	43	8			124	36									
Private Students			18	4			8										
Departmental	6	4	97	5	lit	5	20										
K.-IT. P. AKD OUDH J Aided.	1	11	3				3<S	9									
(Unaided)							10	3									
Departmental	2	2	4				10	8									
FUKJAB... Aided.																	
(Unaided)																	
Departmental							17	JO									
CKHTBAJ... Aided.																	
(Unaided)							ftfi	81									
Private Students							1	1									
TOTAL FOR INDIA	93	40	697	as6	»	34	*.S7* >	JO*	*7*	71	7	a	a	a	*.735	V37	

*The Previous Examination takes place one year after the student has matriculated, the 1st B. A. or B. Sc. two years after matriculation, and the B. A. after Entrance-Examination. The P. A. Examination takes place two years, and the B. A. four years after the Entrance-Examination.

Table 4.—Number of Under-graduates studying each Optional Language in the official year 1881-82.

PROVINCES.	Sanskrit*	Arabic.	Persian.	Hebrew.	Greek.	Latin.	An India* VeroaoAtf.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
ANDHRA PRADESH	9	24	2	it		20	24
BENGAL	•	301	aM	103	3	1	63
BOMBAY	•	2^196	15	114	—	X	125
GUJARAT	•	112	86		a**	*«•	3
MADHYA PRADESH	•	29	i^4	56		* « *	14*
MADRAS	•	48	««	r_		««	Mr*
TOTAL FOR INDIA	»:		370	3	22	215	

*in their own system of education.

SUBSIDIARY TABLES—COLLEGIATE EDUCATION.

STable 5.—Return of Students graduating in a literary or a scientific course at the Bachelor of Arts Examinations held in the official year 1881-82.

PROVINCE AND CLASS OF COLLEGES.		LITERARY COURSE.		SCIENTIFIC COURSE.*		TOTAL.	
		No. Examined.	No. Passed.	No. Examined.	No. Passed.	No. Examined.	No. Passed.
		2	3	4	5	6	7
MADRAS	f Departmental .	10*	68	6	3	*07	71
	.j Aided	50	27	28	21	78	48t
	(. Unaided Private Students	+++ 34	til 5	2	I	i* 36	□..f
BOMBAY	f Departmental .	78	24	23	5	101	ast
	. < Aided	21	4	10	S	31	9
	(. Unaided		#,*	«*.			■
BENGAL	t Departmental .	55	16	93	43	148	59
	. < Aided	82	19	18	5	100	m
	(. Unaided	35	5	8	3	43	S
	Private Students	12	2	6	2	18	4
N.-W.P.&ODH J	C Departmental .	5	nt	22	5	27	- /i
	Aided	X		XO	3	11	
	(. Unaided			a ta	*.n	..l	...
PUNJAB .	(Departmental	4	2	ii«	m	4	* g'■
	. < Aided		#,*	***		«««	■
	C Unaided			,**	'in		
TOTAL FOR INDIA*		478	172	226	96	704	afB

* The figures for Bombay include students who graduated in a purely or partly scientific course. In Madras and Bengal, there is no purely scientific course.

f In addition to these, 19 out of 40 students in the colleges of the Native States graduated in the literary course.

x Excluding Ajmir, British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.